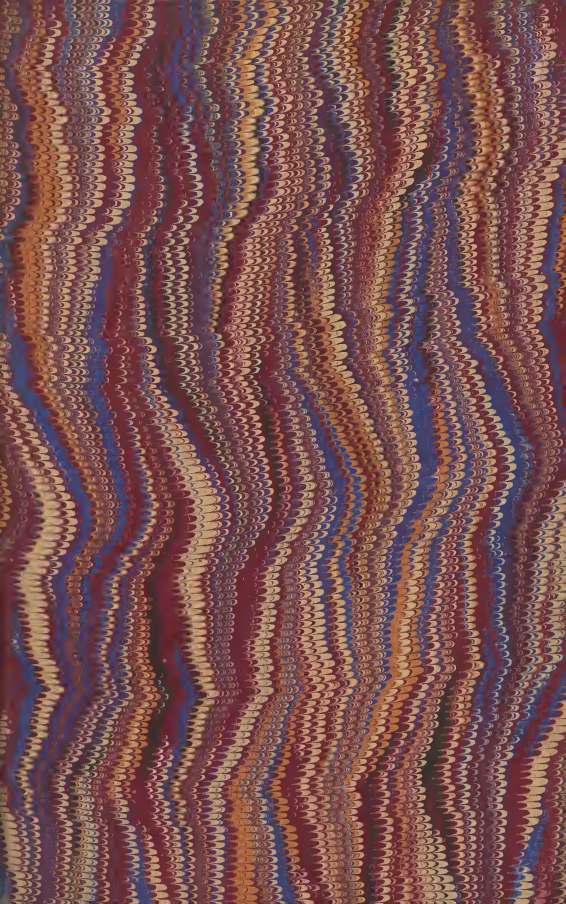


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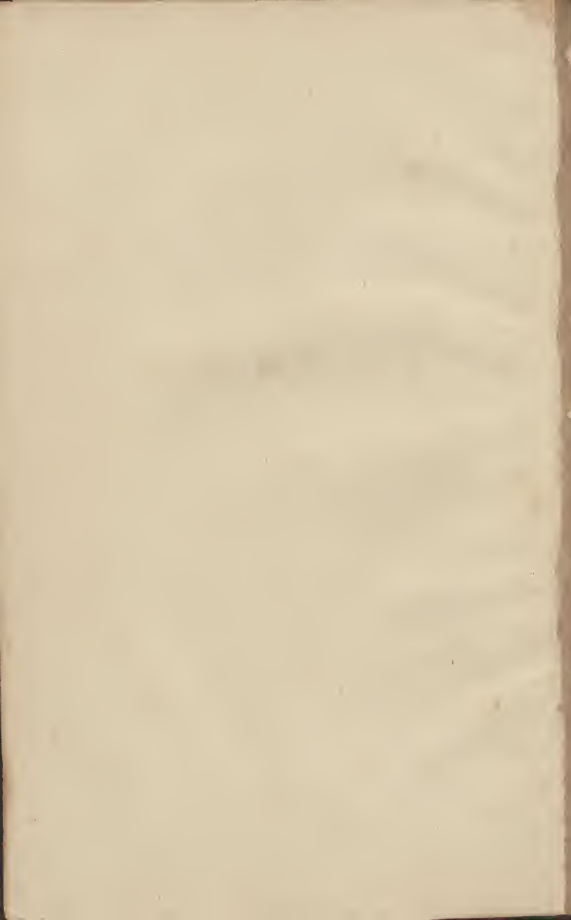


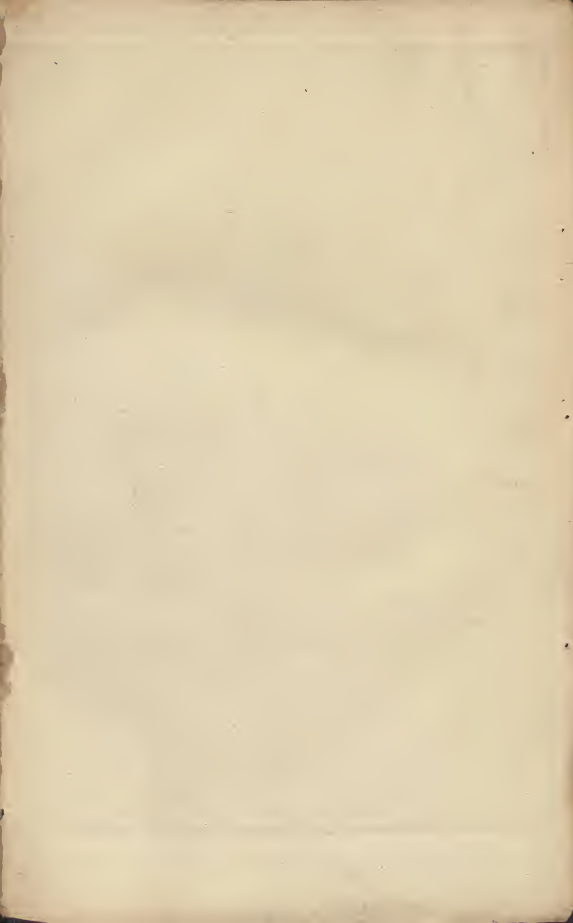
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*Bygone*

*A Cossack.*

THE  
**European Delinéator :**

CONTAINING BRIEF, BUT INTERESTING DESCRIPTIONS

OF

RUSSIA,  
SWEDEN,

DENMARK,  
NORWAY,

&c. &c. &c.

COMPILED FROM THE MOST MODERN AND APPROVED AUTHORS,

*INTERSPERSED WITH OCCASIONAL REMARKS,*

AND

*Embellished with Twenty Coloured Engravings,*

ILLUSTRATIVE OF

**COSTUMES**

Worn by various Natives of the Nations treated of in the Course of this Work.

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THE  
EUROPEAN DELINEATOR.

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RUSSIA.

**T**HE Russian empire is, perhaps, the most extensive that ever existed; the length being about 9,200 English miles, and the breadth 2,400.

By the final partition of Poland, European Russia now extends from the river Dniester to the Uralian mountains, that grand chain which naturally divides Europe from Asia, a length of about 1600 miles; and in breadth about 1000 English miles. The extent is computed at about 1,200,000 square miles.

The European part of the Russian empire embraces many ancient kingdoms and states. Amidst the grand conflux of nations towards the west, which attended the decline and fall of the Roman Empire, the Slavonic tribe of Rossi escaped the observation of history till the ninth century; and it is uncertain whether the term were native, or imported by the Scandinavian chiefs who founded the Russian monarchy. In the sixteenth century, when Russia first attracted the observation of enlightened Europe, we find that the new appellation of Muscovia had unaccountably passed among foreigners from the capital to the kingdom, an impropriety which long maintained its ground, and has not even yet finally expired.

The grand population of the European part of the Russian empire is well known to be Slavonic. The Slavons, from an extensive original race of mankind, radically distinct from the Goths on the one hand, who, as possessing the countries more to the west, must have preceded the Slavons in their passage from Asia into Europe: and equally distinguishable in language, person, and manners, from the Tartars, and other nations on the east. They are the Sarmatæ of the ancients, and were ever remarkable for personal elegance and strength.

To enter much into the progressive geography of the Russian empire, would be to write a history of its revolutions. Till the sixteenth century this empire continued almost unknown to the rest of Europe, and its geography must be faintly traced in the Byzantine annals, particularly in the work of Constantine Porphyrogenitus on the administration of the empire. Even at that period the Russians held the spacious province around Moscow; and though confined on the east, extended their power to the Baltic, and the vicinity of Prussia. Towards the South, the river Borysthenes conducted them to the Euxine sea. The capitals were Novgorod and Kiow; the former afterwards famous for its alliance with the Hanseatic league: the latter still memorable for its catacombs.

The victories of the Tartars constrained the Russian princes to abandon Kiow about the middle of the twelfth century, and that city having been ruined by the Tartars in the thirteenth, Moscow became the seat of empire. The geography of Russia, in the middle ages, becomes not a little embarrassed from its repeated sub-division into small monarchies, which remained in a state of vassalage to the Tartars till the year 1462, when Russia emerged from this eclipse,

and gradually acquired its present extent and consequence. The great founder of the Russian power was Ivan IV, who reigned from the year 1534 to 1584, and subdued the Tartar kingdom of Astracan, and some provinces on the North West. His successor Feodor I., turned his arms towards Siberia, a country which has been, however, most slowly investigated, and indeed scarcely known till the year 1730. In modern times, Russia has gradually extended her limits at the expence of the Turks; and the addition of an ample third of Poland, has afforded her a source still more stable and fertile of men and power.

The principal sub-divisions of European Russia are into military governments; which, though they are often changing, and are seldom mentioned by any except native geographers, it has not been thought right entirely to omit.

To the north is the extensive government of Archangel, stretching from the borders of Sweden to the confines of Asia. South of this along the Asiatic frontier are the governments of Vologda, Perm, Viatka, Kazan, Simbirsk, Saratov, and the territory of the Don Cossacks, each succeeding the other in a regular progress to the sea of Azof. The government of Ecaterinoslav, with the kingdom of Taurida, is the southernmost province, and contains Little Tartary, with the recent conquests from the the Turks. On the west extend the acquisitions by the division of Poland. The governments of Riga, Revel, Petersburgh, and Viborg, are situated along the Gulfs of Riga and Finland; and the government of Olonetz on the Swedish frontier completes the circuit. The midland provinces are the following: Novgorod,

Tver, Kostroma, and Yaroslavl, for the most part to the North and East of the Volga; Polotsk, Pskov, Smolensk, Mosqua, Vladimir, Nizney, Novgorod, Moghilev, Calouga, Toula, Riazan, Tambov, Penza, Simbirsk, Orel, Sieverskov, Tchernigov, Koursk, Kiev, Charkov, Voronetz, principally to the west of the Volga.

The religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, of which, since the fall of the Byzantine empire, this state may be considered as the chief source and power.

The patriarch of the Russian church had usurped extraordinary powers, to the great injury of the imperial prerogative; but the spirit of Peter I. broke these ignominious bonds, and the patriarchs have since become complaisant instruments of the court. The clergy are very numerous, and have several privileges, particularly exemption from taxes. They have been computed at 67,000, secular and regular. The Greek religion permits the marriage of the secular clergy. The cathedrals and parish churches in the empire are computed at 18,350; the monasteries at 480; nunneries 74; monks supposed to be 7,300; nuns 3,000. The monasteries have not been such favourite resorts since Peter I. and Catherine II. opened the sources of industry.

The government of Russia appears to have been always despotic, there being no legislative power distinct from that of the sovereign. What is called the senate is only the supreme court of judicature. The whole frame of the government may be pronounced to be military; and nobility itself is only virtually estimated by rank in the army.

The population of Russia is so diffuse, and spread over so wide an extent of territory, that very opposite

opinions have been entertained concerning it, but according to the most moderate estimate, the population of European Russia amounts to about 33,000,000.

Russia being a state new in maritime affairs, cannot boast of any colonies, nor can this name be applied to a small establishment or two in the eastern parts of Siberia. But on the Russian armies a great part of the fate of Europe and Asia must depend, and the subject of course deserves particular attention. Mr. Tooke estimates the whole amount of the Russian troops at 600,000; of which 500,000 may be esteemed effective.

The Russian navy consists of several detached fleets, employed in the remote seas on which the empire borders at different extremities. The chief fleet is of course that of the Baltic, which consists of about thirty-six ships of the line. That in the Euxine, or Black Sea, at the harbours of Sevastopol and Kherson, was computed at twelve ships of the line, but not of a high rate, as the Euxine affords no great depth of water; but there are many frigates, gallies, chebecks, and gun-boats. The fleet of gallies in the Baltic, in 1789, was estimated at 120.

The revenues of Russia are supposed to amount to about 50,000,000 of rubles; which, valuing the ruble at four shillings, will be equal to £10,000,000. sterling. The national debt is supposed to amount to little or nothing.

With all these advantages, it is no wonder that the political importance and relations of Russia, are so preponderant in Europe, her recent acquisitions having contributed to render her more and more formidable.

Saint Petersburg the capital of this empire is situated in the latitude of 59° 56' 23" north, and

longitude  $30^{\circ} 25'$  east, from the first meridian of Greenwich. It stands upon the Neva, near the Gulf of Finland, and is built partly upon some islands in the mouth of that river, and partly upon the continent. Its principal divisions are as follow: 1. The Admiralty quarter; 2. The Vassili Ostrof; 3. The fortress; 4. The island of St. Petersburg; and 5. The various suburbs, called the suburbs of Livonia, of Moscow, of Alexander Nevski, and of Wiburgh.

Peter the Great has incurred considerable censure for transferring the seat of empire from Moscow to Petersburg: it has been urged, with some degree of plausibility, that he was in effect more an Asiatic than an European sovereign; that Moscow, lying nearer to the centre of his dominions, was better calculated for the imperial residence; and that by removing his capital, he neglected the interior provinces, and sacrificed every other consideration to his predilection for his settlement upon the Baltic.

But it by no means appears, that although Petersburg was thus situated at the extremity of Russia, that therefore he neglected any other part of his vast dominions. On the contrary, he was no less attentive to his Asiatic than to his European provinces: his repeated negotiations with the Chinese: his campaigns against the Turks; and his conquest of the Persian provinces which border upon the Caspian prove the truth of this assertion. It is no less obvious, that Europe was the quarter from whence the greatest danger to his throne impended, that the Swedes were his most formidable enemies, and that from them the very existence of his empire was threatened with annihilation. It was not by leading his troops against the desultory bands of Turks or



Persians, that he was able to acquire a solid military force; but by training them to endure the firm attack of regular battalions, and to learn to conquer by repeated defeats: with this design, the nearer he fixed his seat to the borders of Sweden, whose veterans had long been the terror of the north, the more readily his troops would imbibe their military spirit, and learn, by encountering them, their well regulated manœuvres. Add to this, that the protection of the new commerce, which he opened through the Baltic, depended upon the creation and maintainence of a naval force, which required his immediate and almost continual inspection.

To this circumstance alone is owing the rapid and respectable rise of the Russian power, its preponderance in the north and its present political importance in the scale of Europe. In a word, had not Peter I. transferred the seat of government to the shores of the Baltic, the Russian navy had never rode triumphant in the Turkish seas; and Catharine II. had never stood forth, what she became, the arbitress of the north, and the mediatrix of Europe.

Thus much with respect to the political consequence which Russia derived from the position of the new metropolis; its internal improvement, the great object of Peter's reign, was considerably advanced by approaching its capital to the more civilized parts of Europe; by this means he drew the nobility from their rude magnificence and feudal dignity at Moscow to a more immediate dependence upon the sovereign, to more polished manners, and to a greater degree of social intercourse. Nor was there any other cause, perhaps, which so much tended to promote his plans for the civilization of his subjects, as the removal of the im-

perial seat from the inland provinces to the shores of the Gulf of Finland. For the nearer the residence of the monarch is brought to the more polished nations, the more frequent will be the intercourse with them, and the more easy the adoption of their arts; and in no other parts could the influx of foreigners be so great as where they were allured by commerce.

In opposition to the censurers of Peter, we cannot but esteem this act one of the most beneficial of his reign; and one might even venture to assert, that if, by any revolution of Europe, this empire should lose its acquisitions on the Baltic; if the court should repair to Moscow, and maintain a fainter connection with the European powers before any essential reformation in the manners of the people should have taken place, Russia would soon relapse into her original barbarism; and no traces of the memorable improvements introduced by Peter I. and Catharine II. would be found but in the annals of history.

So late as the beginning of the last century, the ground on which Petersburgh now stands was only a vast morass occupied by a few fishermen's huts. Peter the Great had no sooner wrested Ingria from the Swedes, and advanced the boundaries of his empire to the shores of the Baltic, than he determined to erect a fortress upon a small island in the mouth of the Neva, for the purpose of securing his conquests, and opening a new channel of commerce.

The fortress was begun on the 16th of May, 1703; and was completed in a short space of time. An author, who was in Russia at that period, informs us, "that the labourers were not furnished with the necessary tools, as pick-axes, spades and shovels, wheelbarrows, planks, and the like; notwithstanding which,

the work went on with such expedition, that it was surprising to see the fortress raised within less than five months, though the earth, which is very scarce thereabouts, was, for the greater part, carried by the labourers in the skirts of their clothes, and in bags made of rags and old mats, the use of wheelbarrows being then unknown to them."

Peter also ordered, in the beginning of the year 1703, a small hut to be raised in an adjacent island, which he called the island of St. Petersburg, and from which the new metropolis has taken its name; this hut was low and small; and is still preserved in memory of the sovereign who condescended to dwell in it.

From small beginnings rose the present metropolis of the Russian empire; and in less than nine years after the first wretched hovels of wood were erected, the seat of empire was transferred from Moscow to Petersburg.

The despotic authority of Peter, his zeal for the improvement of the new capital, and his endeavours to make it resemble the other cities of Europe, will appear from the following orders issued by his command. In 1714 a mandate was put forth, that all buildings upon the island of St. Petersburg, and in the Admiralty quarter, particularly those upon the banks of the Neva, should be constructed after the German manner with timber and brick; and that each of the nobility and principal merchants should be obliged to have a house in Petersburg; that every large vessel navigating to the city should bring thirty stones, every small one ten, and every peasant's waggon three, towards the construction of the bridges and other public works.

Succeeding sovereigns have continued to embellish Petersburg, but none more than the late empress and the present emperor, whose unabating exertions have conspired to advance this city to its present state of magnificence, in which every house seems a palace and every palace a city. On every side are long and wide streets of highly decorated stone edifices; interspersed with the still more stately mansions of the nobility, the roofs of which are painted in rich colours harmoniously blending with the gilded domes and spires of the neighbouring churches. Although this city abounds in public buildings, in a style of gigantic architecture no where else to be found, yet the taste of the emperor and the industry of his subjects are daily undertaking new works, which, when completed, will still more strongly call forth the admiration of the traveller. Amongst the most beautiful of these growing structures are the Kasan church, the new Exchange, the Manege for the hevalier guards, and the Façade of the Admiralty. No country can boast so long an uninterrupted street as the Great or English Quay; the granite front and pavement of which are unparalleled. The canals are worthy of the same august hand; and the superb bridges which clasp them from side to side, rear their colossal pillars in all the majesty of imperial magnificence. The dingy hue of bricks, or the frippery of plaister, seldom offend the eye in this noble city. Turn where you will, rise immense fabrics of granite; a person ignorant of the history of the place, would suppose that it had been founded on a vast plain of that rocky production, whence had been derived the stones of the buildings; and on the bosom of which had been dug the rivers and canals that intersect its

surface : but it is from the quarries of Finland that the Russians dig these bodies of granite, and transport and place them here in lasting monuments of their own unwearied industry.

The banks of the Neva exhibit the most grand and lively scenes ever beheld. That river is in most places broader than the river Thames at London ; it is also deep, rapid, and as transparent as chrystal ; and its banks are lined on each side with a continued range of handsome buildings. On the north side the fortress, the Academy of Sciences and the Academy of Arts are the most striking objects ; on the opposite side are the Imperial palace, the Admiralty, the mansions of many Russian nobles, and the English line, so called because ( a few houses excepted ) the whole is occupied by English merchants.

Petersburgh, from its low and marshy situation, is subject to inundations, which threaten the city with a total submersion. These floods are chiefly occasioned by a west or south-west-wind, which, blowing directly from the gulf, obstructs the current of the Neva, and causes a vast accumulation of its waters.

The troops which particularly attract the notice of a stranger on entering Petersburgh, are the Cossacks, and certainly more curious objects cannot be imagined. Their persons, air, and appointments, and the animal on which they are mounted, seem so totally at variance that you can hardly suppose a reason for so unequal a union. The men are robust and fit for service : their horses appear completely the reverse : mean in shape, and slouching in motion, every limb speaks of langour, and every moment you expect to see them drop down dead under their heavy burthen : but so false are these shows that there is not a more hardy

animal existing, they will travel incalculable journeys, and remain exposed to the heat or cold, day and night, without manifesting any sense of inconvenience.

These little rugged beasts never, like our war horses know the luxury of a snug stable, and a well littered bed nor ever enjoy the comfort of a curry-comb or whip of straw. Their sustenance is of the most scanty sort ; but, in spite of toil or rough fare, they bear all with unabated strength ; and are thus, of all animals best calculated for a soldier's life.

Though now formed into regular regiments, they receive no other pay than the usual allowance for cavalry, the origin of this brave race, who in so many wars have been amongst the best soldiers of the empire, was a restless band of fugitives, from Astracan, and the provinces of Polish Russia, Podolia, and Volhynia. Having left their native soil, they wandered towards the banks of the Boristhenes, where they took possession of several small Islands, subsisting themselves by ravages, piracies and plunder. From this double mode of depredation, they soon became formidable to the Turks on the Black Sea. Their maritime adventures, and enterprises on land, formed them into excellent seamen, as well as soldiers : and their nearest neighbours regarded them with jealousy and dread.

Stephen Batori, king of Poland, aware of their growing consequence, had the address to attach them to his interests ; and, to induce them to serve in his armies, gave them land, and many privileges in the Ukraine, guaranteed to them the right of being governed by their own chief, and put them in possession of the strong fort of Tretimiroff on the Boristhenes. The succeeding princes of Poland were not so prudent as Batori ; and, attempting to entirely subjugate their



hardy allies, a sharp contention arose between them ; and the Cossacks, overwhelmed by the numbers and discipline of their treacherous friends, emigrated in vast numbers to a tract of country on the banks of the Don and Volga. Others went to the borders of the Caspian Sea, and seizing the town of Azoph, established themselves in great strength. But the Poles continuing to harrass them, they applied to the Muscovites for succour ; and since then have been most firmly attached to them.

They are distinguished by the names of Donski and Ukraine Cossacks : and the Tzar Peter, finding them so valuable an acquisition, allowed them unrestricted their usual government, which is a sort of military democracy. Their chief is called the Hetman, and is elected in a general meeting of the heads of the people, leaving the confirmation of his dignity to the sovereign of Moscovy. The office is for life. Every town has its governor, also called a Hetman, who is chosen annually, and is accountable to the grand Hetman. The Tzar awarded to the Cossacks his protection in retaining to them the enjoyment of their ancient laws and privileges, without paying any tribute to him, provided they would always hold themselves in readiness to appear in arms at their own expense, whenever he should deem it necessary to require their services, their usual power is 16,000 men, which they can bring into the field any day that is demanded of them by the Emperor.

Their riches consist in cattle and horses. Their habitations are clean, and their diet chiefly fish, flesh, and fruits, cooked in the plainest way. The men are very tall, well proportioned, and greatly differ in the character of their heads, from those of their neigh-

bours. They are hardy, brave, active, and lively : but, like most uncultivated nations, few of them have any idea of the refinements of honour. Their dialect is a mixture of Polish and Russian. When they first accepted the protection of Poland, they were Pagans ; but they now profess the Christian religion, as it is established in Russia.

Their dress is military, and useful, consisting of a close dark blue jacket, and very large full trowsers, under which they wear drawers and boots. Their head is covered with a high black cap of sheep-skin ; a red bag hangs from its top, ornamented with a chain of white worsted lace and tassels ; a red stripe, rather broad, runs along the outside of the trowsers, as well as a cord of the same colour round the cap and sleeves. A single row of buttons closes the jacket at the breast. A broad leather belt, containing cartridges, and to which is suspended a light sabre, confines their waists. Their principal weapons are a pike, about eight feet long, and a pair of pistols. A black belt crosses their left shoulder, to which is attached a sort of tin cartridge box, holding ammunition, and surmounted with a ramrod. An uncouth saddle is bound on the horse, somewhat like a double pillow, under which is a square piece of oil cloth, painted in various colours. There are others, but a great similarity prevails the only difference being in the colour of the dress, which is pink, and having the addition of a musket.

Thus dressed, and thus accoutred, is the Cossack. Fierce and savage as this race of men are, when roused to resentment, by a sense of duty, the artist has spoke much in their favour, by judiciously representing the subject of his choice, dismounted ; anxious to afford a respite to the cares of his beast,





*A Bashkeer.*

and ease to his oppressed sides. But what particularly arrests the attention of the discerning few, is, the Cossack's upraised eye, piercing beyond the limits of space, and silently imploring from heaven, a blessing on himself, and those, from whom, a few more hours may separate him for ever in this world; for as Corporal Trim says, to my Uncle Toby, "A soldier must say his prayers how and when he can."

There is another nation called Bashkeers, in the Russian service. They are the remains of the old Tschalmates, a people who dwelt anciently on the Kama, and united themselves with the Tartarian hordes. The Tartars, indeed call them Baschkort, that is Wolf, from their dexterity in plundering. Their countenances are exceedingly picturesque, being of a strong character, burnt with the sun, and wearing long beards in all the rudeness of uncultivated nature.

This order of soldiery, in which there is a great variety, is generally used in the Russian army, as in foraging parties, patrols, or scouts; its discipline not being regularly organized on the cavalry system.

The infantry is generally composed of athletic men, between the ages of eighteen and forty, endowed with great bodily strength, but generally of short stature, with martial countenance and complexion; inured to the extremes of weather and hardship; to the worst and scantiest food; to marches for days and nights, of four hours repose and six hours progress; accustomed to laborious toils, and the carriage of heavy burthens; ferocious, and disciplined; obstinately brave, and susceptible of enthusiastic excitements; devoted to their sovereign, their chief, and their country.—Religious without being weakened by superstition; patient, docile, and obedient;

possessing all the energetic characteristics of a barbarian people, with the advantages engrafted by civilization. Their defects as an army are but the consequences of their imperfect military system, and not of individual inaptitude. Their powers require but direction; their courage, experience. Nature has provided in them the most excellent materials for a military establishment. No genius is required to create, method is only needed to arrange, and ability to command.

The bayonet is a truly Russian weapon. The British alone are authorized to dispute their exclusive pretension to this arm; but as the Russian soldier is chosen for the army, out of a numerous population, with the greatest attention to its physical powers, the battalions of the former have superior advantages.

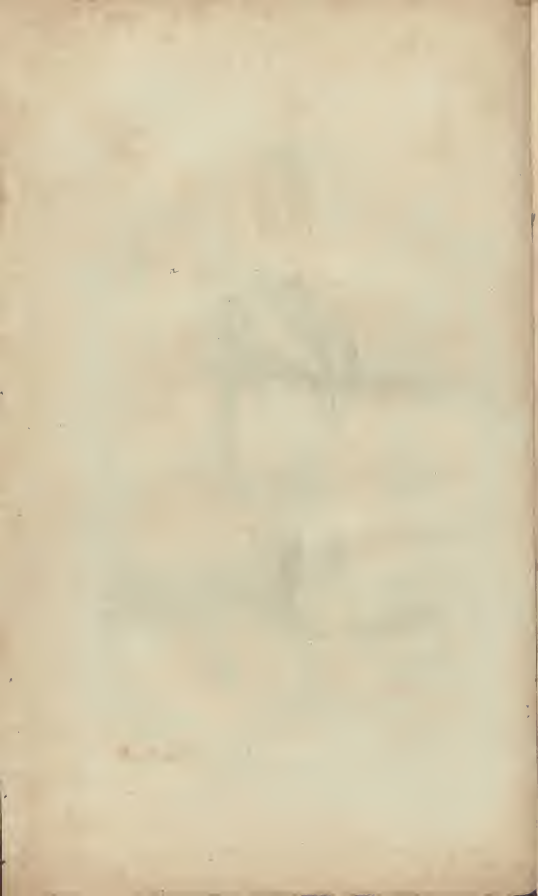
The untrained Russian also, like the Briton, undaunted, whilst he can affront the danger, disdains the protection of favouring ground, or the example of his adversary, and presents his body, exposed from head to foot, either to the aim of the marksman, or the storm of the cannonade. Their uniform is commonly green with red facings.

The Russian cavalry is certainly the best mounted of any upon the continent; and as English horses can never serve abroad in English condition, it is the best mounted in Europe. Their uniform is blue returned with red.

The Russian artillery is of the most powerful description. No other army moves with so many guns, and with no other army is it in a better state of equipment, or is more gallantly served. The piece is well formed, and the carriage solid, without being heavy. The harness and the rope-tackling is of the



*A Russian Soldier. (Infantry.)*





best quality for service, and all the appurtenances of the gun complete and well arranged. Their uniform is scarlet, with blue and black facings.

The whole army is distinguished with white cockades. Every regiment, like our own, takes its name from the district in which it is raised. The grenadiers are the only exception, and they are called by the name of their commanders.

Such are the character and state of the Russian armies. Such are the materials with which Peter the Great established his European empire ; with which Suwarrow undeviatingly triumphed, and which, under the orders of Beningzen disputed, and successfully disputed, the power of France. There is a living active principle of growth and power in the Russian empire ; a self-impetus, that will break through all restraints which a cabinet would unnaturally oppose ; a national spirit of superiority that would resist and ultimately control any humiliating policy of an imbecile or degraded government.

Moscow is situated in  $37^{\circ} 31'$  of longitude from the first meridian of Greenwich, and in  $55^{\circ} 45' 45''$  of northern latitude ; and may be considered as a town built upon the Asiatic model, but gradually becoming more and more European ; and exhibiting in its present state, a motley mixture of discordant architecture. It is distributed into the following divisions. 1. Kremlin. 2. Khitaigorod. 3. Bielogrod. 4. Semlainogrod. 5. Sloboda ; which, for want of a more precise term, may be called the suburbs.

1. The Kremlin was probably thus denominated by the Tartars, when they were in possession of Moscow, from the word Krem, or Krim, which signifies a fortress : it stands in the central and highest part of

the city, near the conflux of the Moskva and Neligna, which wash two of its sides, is of a triangular form, and about two miles in circumference. It is surrounded by high walls of stone and brick, which were constructed by Peter Solarious, a celebrated architect of Milan, in the year 1491.

The Moskva, from which the city takes its name, flows through it in a winding channel; but, except in Spring, is only navigable for rafts.

Future historians who feel the flame of Patriotism warm their breasts, when recording the action of a nation struggling to evade the galling yoke of foreign oppression, will enjoy heart-felt pleasure as their hand pourtray the awfully grand conflagration, witnessed in the beginning of the nineteenth century, in the destruction of this immense city, once the seat of Russian Empire! Here it was the brave Russians, driven to desperation, by outrageous acts of an overwhelming foreign army, evinced such determined resolution of soul, as staggers the strong mind of the warrior, used to scenes of destruction, and fills the contemplative one of the philosopher with wonder, admiration, dread, and praise! Cool reason, had it been consulted, would have sickened at the idea of deliberately consigning thousands of sick and lame, to the destructive ravages of numberless fires, kindled in various parts of a populous town, at the same instant of time; but what reflection shudders at to contemplate, zeal, in the cause of liberty, executes with the promptitude of heaven's engines, lightning, earthquake, &c. Thus it was, that men, whose souls formed by nature for great enterprize, precipitately rushed to execute the projects of minds inspired by love of freedom, regardless of the dreadful consequences, locally considered;

which consequences, much as they are to be lamented, doubtless, have saved from ignominious chains of slavery 33,000,000 of souls and, given an entirely new aspect to the affairs of continental belligerents! Terrific, indeed, must have been the scene, when an able writer, who witnessed it, describes the scite of Moscow, at the moment he was writing, as "an ocean of flame!" In this city, the Emperor of the French, with a most numerous army of veterans, expected finding winter quarters in 1812, but, after meeting with a warm reception from the flames of Moscow, and its citizens, they were doomed to experience cold comfort in their disastrous retreat therefrom, when exposed to the "peltings of the pitiless storm." Death and desolation stood in haggard form before their eyes, when together with their horses, each saw his comrade find an unexpected grave in the bleached snows of Russia. Horrid climate!

From this memorable epoch, and from the manly and dignified conduct of Alexander, the present emperor of all the Russias, he has gained to himself the distinguished title of "The liberator of nations" a title which we are sanguine in our expectations of seeing him support with honour to himself, and ultimate blessings to nations long oppressed by despotic rulers, which, profiting by the example set by this brave people, begin to throw off the yoke of vassalage, and assert their right to independence, and a free commercial intercourse with civilized man.

As the Russian Empire comprises so many distinct races of men, the manners of course must be very various. The Slavonic Russians, who constitute the chief mass and soul of this empire, are generally middle sized and vigorous: they are extremely

patient of hunger and thirst; and their cure for all diseases is the warm bath, or rather vapour bath. Dr. Guthrie has shewn that the Russians retain many manners and customs derived from their Pagan ancestors, and has given some curious specimens of their songs and music, which seem to be very pleasing.

In summer the peasants go with naked feet, and seldom any covering on their heads; the men literally wear nothing more than a shirt, and trowsers of striped linen. The shirt is closed at the neck with a buckle or clasp. The women wear a blue dress of dyed linen, closed down the front with buttons, and fastened on the shoulders with clasps. It is called a *Serrafan*. Their heads are sometimes bound with handkerchiefs of various colours. The subjects of the annexed plate are selected from amongst this numerous and useful class, returning from labour, engaged in domestic conversation. We cannot omit mentioning a strange custom which they have amongst them; one very repugnant to nature, and to British feelings, even shocking to think on. Fathers marry their sons to some girl in the village, at a very early age, and then send the young men to Petersburg, or Moscow, to seek employment, leaving their brides a few days after marriage, to the care of their parents. At the expiration of some years, when the son returns to his cottage, he finds himself the nominal father of several children, the offspring of his own parent. This is done all over Russia, and is never considered a hardship by the parties.

Such is the force of habit on the mind, that what would fix an eternal stigma on a parent in England, is here practised without the least compunctuous feeling on one part, or dissatisfaction on the other.



*Russian Peasants in their Summer Costume.*



The Russian nobility are passionately fond of travelling; and under the circumstances of the Emperor Paul's administration, this passion increased with the difficulty of its gratification. They entertain extravagant notions of the wealth and happiness of Englishmen; and they have good reason to do so; since whatever they possess useful or estimable comes to them from England. Some of the nobles are much richer than the richest of our English peers; and a vast number, as may be supposed, are very poor. To this poverty, and to these riches, are equally joined the most abject meanness, and the most detestable profligacy. In sensuality they are without limits of law, conscience, or honour. In their amusement, always children; in their resentment, women. The toys of infants, the baubles of French fops, constitute the highest object of their wishes. Novelty delights the human race; but no part of it seek for novelty so eagerly as the Russian nobles. Novelty in their debaucheries; novelty in gluttony; novelty in cruelty; novelty in whatever they pursue. This is not the case with the lower class, who preserve their habits unaltered from one generation to another. But there are characteristics in which the Russian prince and the Russian peasant are the same: They are all equally barbarous. Visit a Russian, of whatever rank, at his country seat, and you will find him lounging about, uncombed, unwashed, unshaven, half-naked eating raw turnips, and drinking *quass*. The raw turnip is handed about in slices, in the first houses, upon a silver salver, with brandy, as a whet before dinner. Their hair is universally in a state not to be described; and their bodies are only divested of vermin when they frequent the bath. It

is difficult to conceive how the wives of the generality of the nobles can entertain any respect for their husbands. Married, without passion, by the policy and self-love of their parents, frequently to men they never saw until the time of wedlock; subjected to tyrants, who neither afford examples to their children, nor any source of social enjoyment to themselves; who are superannuated before the age of thirty, diseased, dirty, and overwhelmed by debt; the women regard the matrimonial life as superior indeed to that of imprisonment in a convent, but as a state of slavery, from which they look to a joyful deliverance in the death of their husbands. Every one acquainted with the real history of the Empress Catharine, and the manner in which she burst the connubial bonds, will find in it a model of the state of female society throughout the empire. The wives of the nobles, it is true, do not assassinate their husbands, but the ties of wedlock are altogether disregarded.

A Russian nobleman will sell any thing he possesses, from his wife to his lap-dog; from the decorations of his palace, to the ornaments of his person; any thing to obtain money; any thing to squander it away. Their plan is, to order whatever they can procure credit for; to pay for nothing; and to sell what they have ordered as soon as they receive it. We should call such conduct, in England, *swindling*; there, it bears another name: it is called *Russian Magnificence*.

When winterly accoutred, they wear on their heads a turban-formed cap of sable; a large cloak, called a shoub, with arms lined throughout with bear, Siberian-fox, racoon or other skins, covers the body, reaching to the ancles; it wraps well round the wearer, being well caped and cuffed with fur. A sort of shoes





*A Russian Nobleman  
in his Winter dress.*



called kangees, of elk or calf-skin, rough both within and without fence the feet. To Englishmen, unaccustomed to the severities of a winter's day in Russia, such a garb as we have bestowed on the "Russian Nobleman in his winter-dress," may have a very uncouth appearance, nor can such calculate on the utility thereof; but when they are informed that such is the intenseness of the frost in this clime, that without the greatest care, the ears and nose are frequently frost-bitten to such a degree, that mortification often ensues, they will at once subscribe to our opinion, that usefulness, though ever so grotesque, should triumph over fashion; and, that as self-preservation is the first law of nature, whatever conduces thereunto, ought, and will ultimately bear down all opposition.

In the class of the nobles, the women are far superior to the men: they are mild, affectionate, often well informed, beautiful, and highly accomplished: while the men are destitute of every qualification which might render them, in the eyes of their female companions, objects of admiration. It is not therefore to be wondered at, that ladies of rank have the character of not being strict in their fidelity to their husbands.

The wives of the native merchants are dressed in all the riches their husbands can afford, in a fashion, hot, stiff, and most discordant with their figures. Their petticoat is of brocade silk, gaudily flowered, and slung on their shoulders by a kind of gallowses thick with embroidery; the body is covered with a jacket, either of velvet or stuff, bound with gold lace and colours. A shift sleeve reaches to their elbow. Their neck and arms are bare, hung with beads, necklaces, ear and finger rings innumerable. Some

wear diadems of gold set with coloured stones and pearls; others, a large square handkerchief richly shot with silver and various hues, and thrown down their backs, one corner being ingeniously wound round their heads, making a simple and pretty coëffure. They also wear boots, made of leather or velvet, according to the pecuniary ability of the purchaser, indeed this invention for the comfort of the leg is so respected here, that the smallest infants, just able to crawl, are encumbered sooner with boots, than with shirts.

Every point about these dames is the opposite of beauty, their eyes are tolerable, but totally divested of expression. Their complexions are besmeared with white and red paint, and their teeth most perversely stained with black, not a muscle of their face ever moves: and in general their usual attitude being stationary with their hands knit together across their persons, they stand like a string of waxen figures, gazing on the passing groupes of the higher orders. From an extraordinary mode of tying their girdle, they all look as women wish to be who love their lords! married or single, 'tis just the same,

Agreeable to the above description, will be found our plate of "A Russian Tradesman's Wife, in her summer dress."

The climate of Russia in Europe, as may be expected in such a diversity of latitudes, presents almost every variety from that of Lapland, to that of Italy: for the newly acquired province of Taurida may be compared with Italy in climate and soil. But winter maintains the chief sway at Petersburg, the capital, and the Neva is annually frozen from November to March or April. The climate around the



*A Russian Tradesman's Wife  
in her Summer Dress.*



frozen ocean, and the last European isle upon the N. E. that of Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land, is of noted severity, the northern side being encompassed with mountains of ice, and the sun not visible from the middle of October till February; while it never sets during June and July. Taurida presents, on the contrary, all the luxuriance of the southern year, while the middle regions are blest with the mild seasons of Germany and England.

In so wide an empire, the face of the country must also be extremely various; but the chief feature of European Russia consists in plains of a prodigious extent, rivalling in that respect the vast desarts of Asia and Africa. In the south are some extensive steppes or dry and elevated plains, such as that above the sea of Azof, in length about 400 English miles. The numerous and majestic rivers also constitute a distinguishing feature of this empire.

The soil is also extremely diverse, from the chilling marshes which border the White and frozen seas, to the rich and fertile plains on the Volga. The most fertile is that between the Don and the Volga, from Voronetz to Simbirsk, consisting of a black mould, strongly impregnated with salt-petre; that is, a soil formed from successive layers of vegetable remains. In Livonia and Esthonia the medial returns of harvest are eight or ten fold; and the latter is generally the produce of the rich plains near the Don, where the fields are never manured, but on the contrary are apt to swell the corn into too much luxuriance. Pasturage is so abundant that the meadows are little regarded, and the artificial production of grasses is scarcely known. Some of the meadows are watered, and produce large crops of hay, the dry pastures

yield a short, but nutritious produce, and in a few of the steppes the grass will attain the height of a man, and is seldom mown.

Agriculture is hardly known in the northern parts of the governments of Olonetz, and Archangel; but in the central parts of the empire has been pursued from time immemorial.

In general however agriculture is treated with great negligence, yet the harvests are abundant. In the north rye is most generally cultivated; but in the middle and the southern regions wheat; barley is a general produce, and is converted into meal, as well as oats, of which a kind of porridge is composed. Millet is also widely diffused. Rice succeeds well in the vicinity of Kislcar. Hemp and flax form great objects of agriculture. Tobacco has been produced since the year 1763, chiefly from Turkish and Persian seed. The olive has been tried in vain at Astracan, but prospers in the southern mountains of Taurida along the Euxine. What is called the Kirefskoi apple often weighs four pounds, is of an agreeable flavour, and will keep a long time. A transparent sort from China is also cultivated, called the Nalivui melting and full of juice. Bees are not known in Siberia, but form an object of great attention in the Uralian forests.

European Russia is so abundant in forests that it would be vain to attempt to enumerate them. There are prodigious forests between Petersburg and Moscow, and others between Vladimir and Arzomas. Further to the South there seems to have been a forest of still greater extent.

When we consider the vast extent of territory comprehended under the European sovereignty of



Russia, from the frozen shore of Archangel to the delicious climate of the Crimea, and that the whole of this great empire has scarcely produced a single naturalist of any eminence, all that is known of its vegetables, animals, and minerals, being collected for the most part within the last fifty years by a few foreigners, under the munificent patronage of Catharine II., it will be evident that the rudiments alone of the Russian flora can as yet be extant. The provinces bordering upon the Baltic, and the newly acquired government of Taurida, have been examined with some attention; and a few striking features of the botany of the interior of the country have been described by travellers; but many years of patient research must elapse before the natural history of Russia is advanced to an equal degree of accuracy with that of the western parts of Europe. The trees of most use, and in greatest abundance are, the fir; the Scotch pine; the yew-leaved fir; and the larch: all of which mingled together, form the vast impenetrable forests, whence the rest of Europe is principally supplied with masts, deals, pitch, and tar. The other forest trees are, the elm, the lime, of the inner bark of which the Russian mats are made, and from whose blossoms the immense swarms of wild bees collect the chief part of their honey; the birch, the alder, the aspen, the greater maple, and the sycamore; of the shrubs and humbler plants, those of most importance are the cloud-berry, the cranberry, the bear-berry, the stone bramble; the fruit of all which, for want of better, is highly esteemed, and is either eaten fresh, or is preserved in snow during the winter. Quitting the pine forests of the North and middle of Russia, if we turn our attention to the few

vegetable productions that have as yet been noticed amidst the myriads that adorn and enrich the broad vales of the Don and the Dnepier, that glow upon the warm shores of the Black sea, or luxuriate in the delicious recesses of Taurida, we shall see what a rich harvest is reserved for future naturalists, and with what ease the inhabitants may avail themselves of the uncommon bounties of their soil. Here rises in stately majesty for future navies the oak, both the common kind and the species of the prickly cups, the black and the white poplars of unusual size skirt along the margins of the streams, the ash, the horn beam, the nettle tree, occupy the upland pastures, and the elegant beech crowns the summits of the lime stone ridges. Of the fruit-bearing shrubs and trees, besides the gooseberry, the red, the white, and the black currant, which are dispersed in abundance through the woods, there are the almond and peach; the apricot and crab-cherry; the medlar; the walnut; the Tartarian, the black and white mulberry; the olive; the Chio turpentine tree; the hazle nut; the fig; the vine and the pomegranate.

In enumerating the chief rivers of European Russia the first attention is due to the majestic Volga, which forms, through a long space, the boundary between Asia and Europe, belonging properly to the latter continent in which it arises, and from which it derives its supplies, till at Tzaritzin, about 250 miles from its mouth, it turns South East into Asia. This sovereign of European rivers derives its sources from several lakes in the mountains of Valday, and government of Tver, between Petersburg and Moscow; and bends its chief course to the South East; near its junction with the Kama, an important river fed by

many streams from the Uralian chain, it turns towards the South West till it arrives at Tzaritzin. Its comparative course may be computed at about 1700 miles.

Next to the Volga, on the west, is the Don, or Tanaïs, which rises from a lake in the government of Tulan, and falls into the sea of Azof, after a course of about 800 miles.

The Neiper or ancient Borysthenes, rises in the government of Smolensk.

The Niester, or ancient Tyras, now forms the boundary between European Turkey and Russia.

The river Petshora rises in the Ural mountains, and joins the frozen ocean, after a course of about 450 miles.

Next, on the west, is the Mezen, which falls into the White sea after a course of about 350 miles.

The Dwina falls into the gulph of Archangel, after a considerable course of about 500 miles. The Onega closes the list of the chief rivers that flow into the Arctic ocean; for those of Olonetz, and of Russian Lapland, are of little consequence.

The chief lakes are situated in the North West division of the empire. There is a considerable lake in Russian Lapland, that of Imandra; to the south of which the government of Olonetz presents many extensive sheets of water, particularly the large lake of Onega, which is about 150 miles in length, by a medial breadth of about 30. The islands and shores of the Onega are chiefly calcareous, and contain some valuable marbles. To the west is the Ladoga, about 130 miles in length, by 70 in breadth, being one of the largest lakes in Europe.

On the South West we find the lake of Peypus,

about 60 miles in length by 30 in breadth: the northern part of this lake is styled that of Ishud, the south that of Pzcove. From the Peypus, issues the river Narova, or Narva. To the east is the lake Ilmen, on which stands the ancient city of Novgorod. The Beilo, or white lake, is so called from its bottom of white clay.

The lakes that give rise to the famous Volga must not be omitted. The chief of these is the lake Seliger, in the government of Tver, which, though narrow, extends about 30 miles in length; and a smaller lake, not far to the west, emits another source of that august river.

The inland navigation of Russia deserves attention. During the long reign of the late empress many canals were accomplished, or at least received such improvements that the chief honour must be ascribed to her administration. The celebrated canal of Vishnei Voloshok was in some shape completed by Peter, so as to form a communication between Astracan and Petersburg, the course being chiefly afforded by rivers, and it was only necessary to unite the Twertza running towards the Caspian, with the Shlina, which communicates with the Baltic. The navigation is performed according to the season of the year, in from a fortnight to a month, and it is supposed that near 4000 vessels pass annually.

The canal of Ladoga, so called not because it enters that lake, but as winding along its margin, extends from the river Volkof to the Neva, and communicates with the former canal. By these two important canals constant intercourse is maintained between the northern and southern extremities of the empire. Another canal leads from Moscow to

the river Don, forming a communication with the Euxine; and the canal of Cronstadt forms a fourth. Peter the Great also designed to have united the Don with the Volga, and thus have opened an intercourse between the Caspian and Euxine seas, and the Baltic; and the whole empire abounds so much with rivers that many advantageous canals remain to be opened.

By these means the inland trade of Russia has attained considerable prosperity; and the value of her exports and imports have been long upon the increase. Several manufactures are conducted with considerable spirit. That of isinglass, which is a preparation of the sounds, or air bladder of the sturgeon, flourishes on the Volga, the chief seat also of that of kaviar, consisting of the salted roes of large fish. The manufactories of oil and soap are also considerable; and Petersburgh exports great quantities of candles, besides tallow, which abounds in an empire so well replenished with pasturage; nor must the breweries and distilleries be forgotten. Saltpetre is an imperial traffick, and some sugar is refined at Petersburgh. There are several manufactures of paper, and of tobacco, which grows abundantly in the southern provinces. Linen is manufactured in abundance, the best comes from the government of Archangel. Cotton is little wrought, but the silk manufactories are numerous: coarse cloths, carpets, and hats, are also made in Russia, and leather has long been a staple commodity.

Russia produces vast quantities of wax, which is however, generally exported unbleached; nor are there wanting fabrics of earthen-ware and porcelain. Iron foundaries abound; and in the northern government of Olonetz is a grand foundery of cannon. So

wide is now this empire that it maintains a commerce of the most remote descriptions, on the Baltic and the White sea, the Euxine and the Caspian, with Persia, and with China. Archangel, though fallen from its ancient consequence by the building of Petersburg, still affords a moderate trade, and exports pot-ash, kaviar, tallow, wax, hides, hemp, &c. with corn, linseed, coarse linens, and other articles. The commerce of Petersburg is much of the same description: that of Riga is very considerable, and to other articles, are added masts from the Dnieper.

The commerce of the Euxine, or Black sea, is of inferior moment, its chief exports being furs, salt beef, butter, cordage, sail cloth, kaviar, corn, iron, linen, and some cotton stuffs. Imports wine, fruits, coffee, silks, rice, and several Turkish commodities.

The Russian harbours in this sea are Astracan, the chief seat of the Caspian commerce, Gurief, and Kisliar. From Astracan are exported many European manufactures; and the chief imports are raw silk, rice, dried fruits, spices, saffron, sulphur, and naphtha. The Hindoo merchants occasionally bring gold, and precious stones.

There is a considerable trade by land with the Kirguses, who send horses, cattle and sheep, in return for woollen-cloths, iron, and European articles. That with China is nearly on a par; each country transmitting to the amount of about 400,000*l*. Russia exchanges her precious Siberian furs for tea, silk, and porcelain.

The internal commerce of Russia is very considerable; and Siberia is said to afford in gold, silver, of copper, iron; salt, gems, &c. to the amount of 2,400,000*l*. that between the southern and northern provinces is also of great extent and value.

The most important chains of mountains in European Russia are those of Olonetz in the furthest North, and those of Ural which separate Europe from Asia. The chain of Olonetz runs in a direction almost due North, about 900 G. miles. The most arctic part is said to consist chiefly of granite, petrofilex, and limestone; and is not of great height, but retains perpetual snow from the altitude of the climate.

In the centre, between the mountains of Olonetz and those of Ural, there seems to be a considerable chain extending from the East of Mezen to the Canin Nos, a bold promontory which rushes into the frozen ocean; but this chain appears to have escaped the searches of curiosity or avarice, by the perpetual snows with which it is enveloped. The immense Uralian chain extends about 1000 G. miles in length. Pauda, one of the highest mountains of the Uralian chain, is reported to be about 4512 feet above the level of the sea, an inconsiderable height when compared with Mont Blanc or Mont Rosa.

The Zoology of Russia is vast and various, and only a very slight sketch can here be attempted. The more peculiar animals are the white bear of Novaya Zemlia, and the souslik of the South. In the more northern parts are found the wolf, the lynx, the elk; nor is the camel unknown in the lower latitudes. The animals in the centre seem common to the rest of Europe. Among the more useful animals the horse has met with deserved attention, and the breed in many parts of the empire is large, strong, and beautiful.

Even the country near Archangel is remarkable for excellent pasturage and fine cattle. The sheep in the

northern provinces are of a middle size, short tailed, and the wool coarse; nor is proper attention paid towards improving the breed. Those in the South are long tailed, and yeild a superior wool; but the best is from the ancient kingdom of Kazan, and other regions in the East of European Russia.

The chief mines are in the Asiatic part of the empire, but a few are situated in the European, in the mountains of Olonetz; and there was formerly a gold mine in that region near the river Vyg. In the reign of Ivan Basilowitz, the English, in 1569, obtained the privilege of working mines of iron, on condition they should teach the Russians their metallurgy. During the reign of Alexis, the first regular mines were established in Russia about 60 miles from Moscow, and they are still continued, but Peter the Great was the founder of the Russian mineralogy, by the institution of the college of mines in 1719. In 1739 gold was first observed in the chain of Olonetz.

European Russia can boast of few mineral waters, the most celebrated is near Sarepta on the Volga, discovered in 1775. The springs are here numerous and copious, and strongly impregnated with iron. At Perekop there are springs of Naphtha.

The natural curiosities of Russia in Europe have scarcely been enumerated, except those which indicate the severity of winter in so northern a clime. Not to mention the rocks of ice, of many miles in extent and surprising height, which navigate the frozen ocean, adorned like cathedrals with pinnacles, which reflect a thousand colours in the sun, or *Aurora Borealis*; it is well known that the Empress Anne built a palace of ice on the bank of the Neva, in 1740,



which was fifty-two feet in length, and when illuminated had a surprising effect.

### RUSSIAN ISLES.

The small isle of Cronstadt, in the gulph of Finland is only remarkable for an excellent haven, strongly fortified. In the Baltic, Russia also possesses the islands of Oesel and Dago, which are of a considerable size but full of rocks, the marble of the first island is however beautiful. Both isles are chiefly peopled by Estonians.

There are several isles near the shore of Russian Lapland, and in the White sea, but generally barren and uninhabited rocks. Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land, is also uninhabited, and is said to consist of five isles, but the channels between them are always filled with ice. Seals, walruses, arctic foxes, white bears, and a few rein deer, constitute the zoology of this desert; and are occasionally hunted by the people of Mezen. To the south of Novaya Zemlia is the sea of Kara in which the tide flows about two feet nine inches.

The remote and dreary islands of Spitzbergen having been taken possession of by the Russians, they may be here briefly described. This country has by some been styled New Greenland, a name which accurately belongs to the western side of Greenland proper, in North America, while the eastern side is called Old Greenland, as having been anciently planted by the Danes, though since blocked up by ice. The main land of Spitzbergen extends about 300 miles from the south cape. In an adjacent small isle are said to be basaltic columns, from

eighteen to twenty inches in diameter, and mostly hexagonal. Spitzbergen is supposed to have been first discovered by the Dutch navigator Barentz in 1596. The mountains are of granite and grit; the highest not exceeding 4000 feet; for mountains in general decline in height towards the poles. The ice-bergs or glaciers, in the North East of Spitzbergen, present a singular appearance, being high cliffs of an emerald colour, impendent over the sea, with cataracts of melted snow, and a back ground of black conic hills streaked with white. The sea itself contains mountains of ice formed by aggregation; a large field forcing a smaller out of the water till it lodge upon the superior surface, and the height is afterwards increased by the snow, till it sometimes rises to 1500 feet. About the first of November, the sun sets, and appears no more till the beginning of February; and after the beginning of May it never sets till August. The only shrubby plant is the Lapland willow, which rises to the height of two inches. Here are found polar bears, foxes, and rein deers, with walruses and seals. There are a few kinds of water fowl; but the whale is the lord of these shallow seas. The Russians from Archangel maintain a kind of colony; and that northern region seems indeed to have a natural right to Spitzbergen. To the North East of this dreary group are the small isles called the Seven Sisters, the most arctic land yet discovered.

## LAPLAND.

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**T**HIS country is situated, according to the Russian Atlas, between the 69th, and the 75th degree of northern latitude, comprehending on the northernmost side of it, the frozen Alps, or Alps of Snow. These Alps compose the summit of that chain of mountains called Servernoi, whose declivity towards the East and South consists of lower mountains, deserts, forests, fens, and lakes. It is divided into Danish or North Lapland—Swedish or South Lapland—Russian or East Lapland. Russian Lapland is about a thousand versts [A verst is little more than three quarters of an English mile.] in diameter, and yet contains no more than twelve hundred national families. Danish Lapland is considerably less extensive; and Swedish Lapland, on the contrary, much larger and by far the most valuable. At Tornea, in this division of the country, the sun is for some weeks visible at midnight, and the winter in return presents many weeks darkness. Yet these long nights are relieved, by the light of the moon, by the reflection of the snow, and by the Aurora Borealis, or northern lights, which dart their ruddy rays through the sky, with an almost constant effulgence.

The Laplanders are below the middle stature. They have generally a flattish face, fallen cheeks, dark grey eyes, thin beard, brown hair, are well built, and of a yellowish complexion, occasioned by the weather,

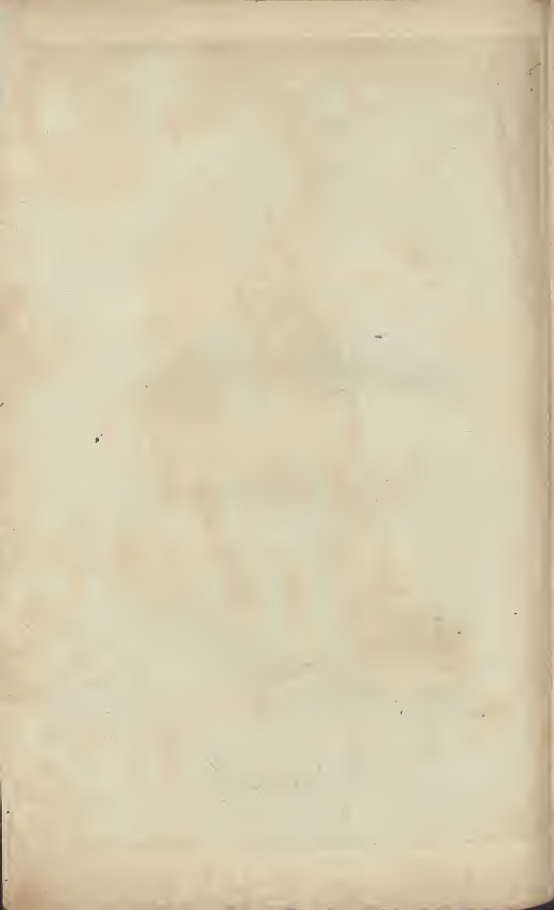
the smoke of their habitations, and their habitual filthiness.

The subject we have selected for our Costume of "A Laplander," might at the first glance be taken to belong to that class which in countries in general are the most numerous, the indigent; but when it is considered that the wealth of these people consist more in nets for taking fish and game, knives, pipes, and other useful implements, than in circular pieces of metal bearing the impress of royalty, it is more reasonable to conclude him wealthy, relatively considered, since our plate portrays him possessing every requisite constituting riches, returning from the beach, having by means of his favourite net, procured subsistence, which he is seen carrying, as a proof of his industry.

The grotesque and motley appearance of the male inhabitants of these dreary regions, might have been consulted in the whimsical dresses of England's professional clowns, through every gradation, from the humble drudge of the itinerant mountebank, to the inimitable Grimaldi, of pantomimic celebrity; consisting of a sort of jacket, made open at the breast, over which is sported a coat-like garment, with tight sleeves, having flaps which reach to the knee, commonly of a blue colour, bound with yellow, destitute of buttons, a girdle of a different colour, ornamented with bits of tin, fastens the coat round the waist, from which are suspended a knife, a pipe, implements for procuring fire, &c. Shoes of a singular appearance protect the feet; red is the prevailing colour for stockings, and the caps they wear have a curious effect, being high and conical, terminating in a small point, from which hangs pendant a narrow slip of cloth, &c.; this



*A Laplander.*



cap is formed of four pieces, sewed together, the seams of which are covered with cloth of a different colour.

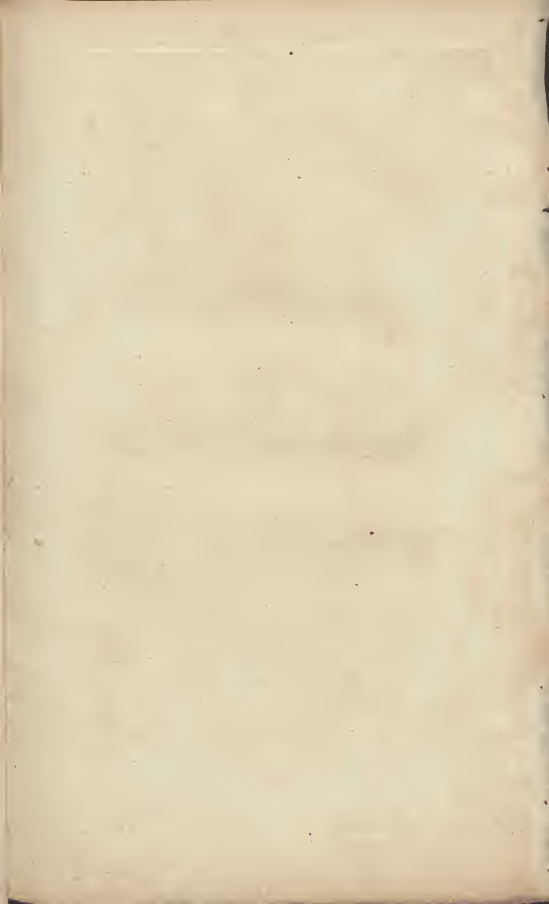
Their manner of life renders them hardy, agile, and supple; but, at the same time, much inclined to laziness. They have plain common sense, are peaceable, obedient to their superiors, not given to theft, nor fickle, cheerful in company, but mistrustful; cheats in commerce, proud of their country and constitution, and have so high a notion of it and themselves, that, when removed from the place of their nativity, they usually die of the nostalgia, or longing to return. Their women are short, complaisant, chaste, often well made, and extremely nervous, which is observable among the men, although more rarely. Their language is of Finnish origin, and comprehends so many dialects, that it is with difficulty they understand each other. They pronounce all the syllables with a hardness that gives their songs a sort of howling or barking sound, which is very disagreeable. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make use of in their Rounes, a sort of sticks which they call Pistave, and which serve them for an almanack. These hieroglyphics are also the marks they use instead of signatures, even in matters of law.

The employment of the women consists in making nets for the fishery, drying fish and meat, milking the rein deer, making cheese, tanning hides, &c. These people live in huts in the form of tents. The carcase of the hut is composed of poles stuck in the ground, and bent at top in such a manner as to compose a vault almost round. A hut is about four or five fathoms in diameter, and not much above one in

height. They cover them according to the season and the means of the possessor: some with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarse cloth or felt, or the old skins of rein deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open asunder. A little place surrounded with stones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is suspended to hang the kettle upon. Round the fire they lay boughs of fir, which they cover with skins, felt, &c. They are not able to stand upright in their huts, but constantly sit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lay down quite naked; and, to separate the apartments, they place upright sticks at small distances. They cover themselves with their cloaths, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag.

Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a mat on the ground; for they never lay their meat on the bare ground. Men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Each having their portion separately given them, that no person may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a short prayer: and, as soon as ever they have done eating, each gives the other his hand. The chief place of distinction is between the master and mistress of the hut. They entertain their guests with fruits and tobacco; when they smoke, they spit in their hand, and snuff the spittle up their nose. All the money which they have not immediate occasion for they bury in the earth, as well as their plate, and whatever they think of value. Nor even at the point of death do they declare the spot where







*A. Magician of Lapland.*

it is hidden, imagining that they shall want it in the other world. By this means the best part of their property is entirely lost. These people are tributary to such of the three powers before mentioned on whose territory they have fixed their habitations.

Their common diseases are, the itch, the pthisic, and putrid fevers. They are subject to inflammations in the eyes, the effects of the snow and the continual smoke they are exposed to in their huts. Besides these disorders to which they are very liable, they frequently run the risk of breaking their arms and legs from their constant climbing of mountains and craggy cliffs. All the Swedish and Norwegian, as well as the greatest number of the Russian Laplanders, bear the the name of Christians; but their religion is full of superstition, and a compound of Christian and Pagan ceremonies.

In times of epidemical disease among the rein-deer, in cases of sickness, of unfruitful marriages, and other temporal adversities, they make their offerings; always consulting a magician, to which of the Gods they shall sacrifice, what offering they shall make, in what place they shall deposit it, and many more particulars. To this end the magician makes use of his magical drum, which is a box of an oval shape, covered on one side with a skin, and furnished on the other side with several strings and pieces of iron to rattle and make a noise. Strange figures, intended to represent the heavenly bodies, beasts and birds, with many other characters, are drawn on the skins. The sorcerer puts a ring upon his drum, and beats on it with his drum-stick, which is made of the mossy horn of a rein-deer; and, according to the figure on which the vibration of the skin causes the ring to fall, he answers all questions concerning former or future events. At

the same time, he invokes the spirits to assist the drum; and, during this mummary, falls into a fit, during which his soul is supposed to be with the spirits of the air, hearing their converse, and learning the decrees of Heaven. Every person carries his offering himself. Previous to this, the votary performs his purifications, ties up all his dogs that they may not cross his way; and proceeds, without speaking, towards the holy place, bearing the bones, or the horns, of the animal prescribed by the sorcerer; and, as soon as he comes within sight of the place appointed for the offering, he falls down on his hands and knees, and crawls up to it. He then places his offering on the scaffold, and makes his prayer, continuing all the while prostrate with his face upon the earth, this done, the business is over, and the votary returns home.

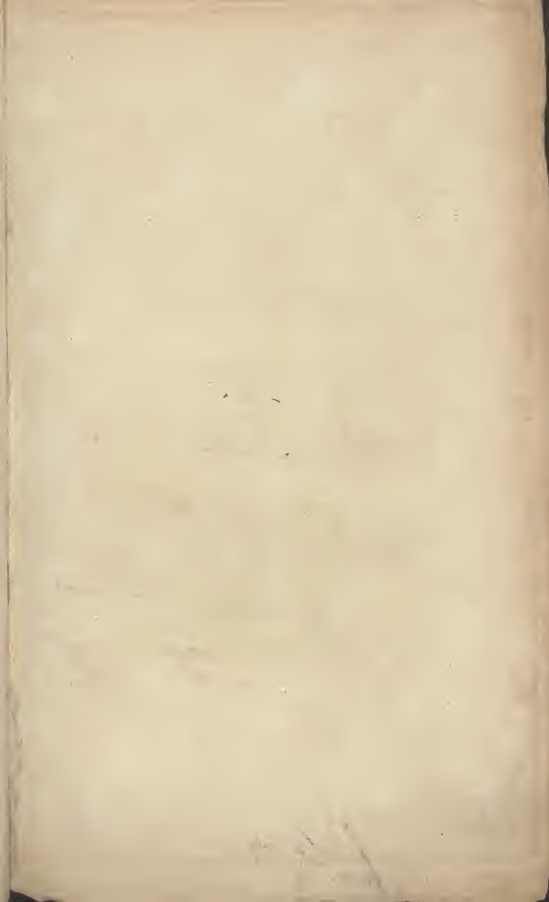
It is not at all surprising that people of such principles should be fertile in visions, apparitions, superstition, and childish tales; and so the Laplanders are to a degree. They never mention the bear by his name, but call him, *The old one, with the fur cloak*. They imagine their magicians possess the power of controuling the winds and the rain, of producing and destroying insects, of speaking to spirits, and a thousand other fooleries. But they believe, at the same time, that the thunder is inimical to the magicians: and hence their proverb, "If it were not for the thunder, the world would be destroyed by magic." They attribute singular effects to certain words and phrases, and scarcely undertake any thing without a previous charm. Of the Christian Laplanders, there are two kinds; those of the Greek and of the Lutheran churches, and there are very well-meaning men in each communion.

## FINLAND.

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**T**HOUGH we do not mean to wander through the mazes of etymology to trace out the origin of the name of the different countries we shall treat of in the course of this work, yet, we shall here remark that the name by which the natives of Finland call their country, is, *Souomen Sari*, which signifies a fenny country, containing many isles: the appellation by which these people call themselves, is *Souome*, from gothic translations of which word come the words *Finns*, *Finland*, and *Finmark*. This country bounds the North-East angle of the gulf of *Bothnia*, and the gulf of *Finland*, between the 60th and 65th degree of Northern latitude, and is estimated to contain 3,000 Swedish leagues square, or 30,000 square versts. It is rocky, and full of high mountains, covered with forests and immense marshes, numerous lakes diversify the scene, some distinct, others communicating together, in several of which are Islands, and in their neighbourhood many tracts of land very well calculated for agriculture, though it is not at all rich in mineral productions. Corn of all kind succeed very well, especially in *Carelia*, but in many provinces it is subject to accidents from the nature of the soil, which is a cold and effervescent clay, whose consistence varies according to the dryness or humidity of the season. In the years of greatest fertility the crop is

scarcely adequate to the consumption of the country, if therefore the season is productive of a bad harvest, the people are driven to the necessity of mixing the bark of fir, and other vegetable substances with their meal. How different the fate of thy inhabitants, happy England! The Finns, that fertile stock which has been the parent of almost all the Northern nations of Europe, were themselves of Asiatic origin. In the most remote periods of antiquity, abandoning their Eastern seats, they settled in the Western parts, which they occupy at present; during the twelfth century they were governed by Kings of their own, but in the beginning of the thirteenth, they became subject to the crown of Sweden, which may account for their towns being built after the Swedish manner. With regard to externals, they differ but little from the Laplanders, but are much more civilized and better informed, having schools and academies amongst them, living in towns and villages, and making considerable progress in the arts and sciences. The Lutheran faith is embraced by them, and they use the christian æra in their chronology. Nobility is unknown amongst them; they form but one state, still, the peasant yields precedence not only to the merchant, and all persons in the service of the crown, whom they call people of quality, but also to the citizen. The Northern Finns continue the use of rein-deer as beasts of draught, the rest employ horses and oxen for that purpose. The peasants are employed in agriculture, hunting, fishing, and taking wild fowl and game; or they work in the forests, preparing pitch and tar, constructing vessels &c. but the chase, fishing, and ensnaring game, supply the generality of the inhabitants with the most certain food. Doubtless numbers,





*A Peasant of Finland.*



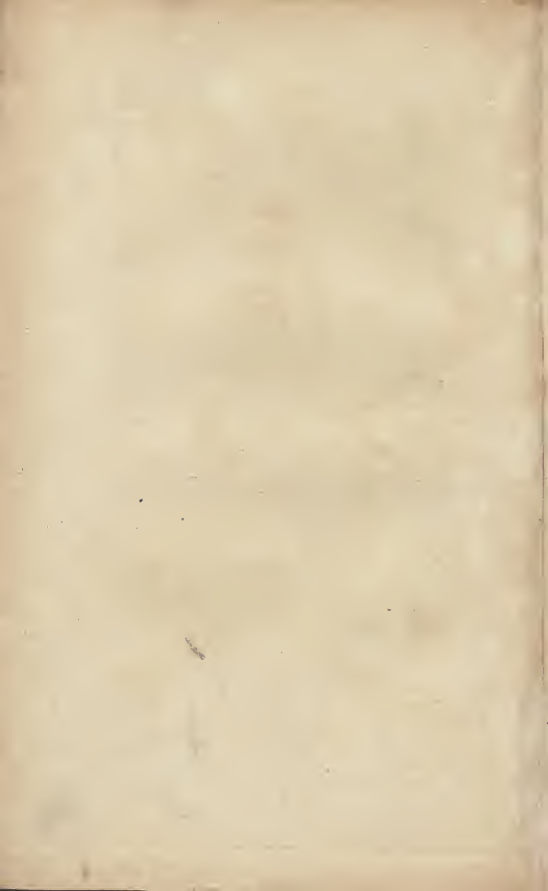
of our readers will conclude on an inspection of our plate, illustrative of the costume of "A Peasant of Finland," that "the dawn is overcast, the morning lowers, and heavily in clouds brings on the day," regardless of which, inured thereto, and defended at all points, from the head to the foot, against the coming storm, which the gathering clouds indicate, the peasant is discovered plodding his way homeward, o'er crisp snow, whose hardened surface scarce yields to the pressure of his weight; thankful to nature for the provision she has enabled him to make for the future, himself and family subsisting on the produce of the game he takes, he is imagined to be caroling forth his gratitude in language similar to that found in one of their translated songs, with which we have closed our description of Finland. Fortified with boots like those worn by our well-sinkers in England, he is enabled to pursue his game across fordable streams, without inconvenience, and traverse the drifted snow, without feeling its enervating effects; from their being lined with fur, warmth and comfort is afforded to the feet and legs, and the lower part of the thighs shielded from the driving rain, sleet, and snow; they wear tight breeches, though nearly concealed by their boots, and the flaps of a very long waistcoat, or rather jacket, which is girt round the loins, and fastened behind; the girdle being of a different colour from the drapery. Superadded is a coat made of the skin of some animal, which for accommodation in cold weather, is worn with the fur inward, at the extremity of each sleeve is a cuff of fur; the neck is defended by a collar of the same comfortable article, and we view it also forming that part of the hat or cap which envelopes the temples, the upper part, or crown, being of cloth: the

hands are immured in leathern gloves, such as by English farmers are termed hedging mittens, their hair wanton o'er the shoulders in all the negligence of nature, and mustaches are indulged a place on the upper lip.

The female peasants are clean and industrious, they make linen and coarse cloth on frames of the simplest construction, and understand the art of dying; their usual dress consists in shifts, drawers, stockings, and slippers, which cover no more than the under part of the feet, and come over the toes like a sock. Gowns, like a short, wide shift, without sleeves, over which is worn a boddice, like a common shift with wide sleeves. Small aprons, and head-dresses made of linen, which fall down their shoulders and back. Round their necks they wear beads, &c. and in their ears large ear-rings. In winter, coarse cloth, or sheep skins become their dress, instead of linen. When a country girl is promised in marriage, she must make a present of four or five Ells of linen, and a pair of stockings to every person that is invited to the nuptials, who, in return, make her a present in money. The lower people are great Epicureans, making no less than five meals a-day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. The Finns frequently live to a very advanced age, although the dropsy, the scurvy, the epelipsy, and especially the hypochondriac affection, are diseases very common among the country people. The ancient Finns were such zealous idolaters, that it was found necessary to call in the secular arm to advance their conversion, which was effected about the middle of the twelfth century, in the reign of Eric, King of Sweden, during the papacy of Alexander III. and under Stephen and Henry, bishops of Upsal. In the middle of the



*A Female Peasant of Finland.*



sixteenth century they were compelled to embrace Lutheranism by the Swedes, who did not give themselves much concern about the reality of their convictions.

The Finns worshipped one sovereign father of the world, under the name of Jaumar or Joomala, which word signifies God in their language to this day. Some represented Joomala by the figure of a great statue, with a collar of gold about its neck. Thor was also one of their gods: he very much resembled Joomala, and, perhaps, was the same under another name. They believed in many subaltern divinities, to whom they offered sacrifices. Some of their idols were placed in the holes of rocks.

They held a devil whom they called, as the Laplanders do, Perket, or Peko, which signifies the infernal god. To the inferior devils they gave the name of Maahines, or impure spirits.

Notwithstanding these idols and their worship have been so long banished Finland, much superstition remains among the country people. These old notions are handed down from father to son, and can hardly be rooted out; and it must require many centuries before they will be totally extinct. Their farms are so distant from one another, that they cannot reap the advantage of a sound and reasonable instruction. The following are some of their superstitious opinions.

Whoso undertakes any business on a Monday or Friday, must expect very little success.

He that makes a riot on St George's day, is in danger of suffering from storms and tempests.

On Christmas Day it is not good to let the cattle out of the stable.

A piece of money, or a bit of silver, must be thrown into the trough out of which the horse drinks, on St. Stephen's day, by every one that wishes to prosper.

No fire nor candle may be kindled on the eve of Shrove Tuesday.

The Feast of Allhallows almost drives them out of their wits. They call this feast Kikri, which was the name of one of their idols. On the eve of this day, in memory of the saints of the Romish church, they take care to provide baths of hot and cold water, bundles of birch twigs, \* set out a table, and place provision on it. As soon as it is dark, the master of the house, in his best cloaths, and bare headed, opens the back gate of the yard with as much politeness and as many bows as if he were receiving a number of visitors. He then approaches the bath with great ceremonious deference, as though he conducted some very respectable guests into it, and then closes the door. Some time afterwards, he goes to let out his imaginary saints, and reconducts them to the yard gate, holding all the while, a bottle of brandy in his hand. The same night they feast the goblins with a treat; and their table is spread in the stable.

Bears are held in great estimation among all the pagan nations of the North and North-East. These people believe that the souls of these animals continue to live after their death, as well as those of the human race, and this it is that has occasioned all that superstitious grimace, observable in the hunting of this animal.

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\* Little twigs with the leaves on them. used constantly in the baths, for the purpose of rubbing the body, and thereby promoting perspiration.

The old Finns had certain songs which they sung at the death of the Bear. The following is a translation of one of them.

“ Beast of all forest-beasts revered, subdued, and slain,  
Health to our huts, and prey a hundred fold restore ;  
And o'er us keep a constant guard !  
I thank the gods, who gave so noble prey !  
When the great day-star hides behind the alps,\*  
I hie me home ; and joy, all-clad in flowers,  
For three long nights, shall reign throughout my hut.  
With transport shall I climb the mountain's side.  
Joy op'd this day ; joy shall attend its close.  
Thee I revere, from thee expect my prey ;  
Nor e'er forget my carol to the bear.”

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\* The name of that chain of mountains, almost always covered with snow which crosses Lapland.

## SWEDEN.

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**T**HE kingdom of Sweden, now a powerful Ally of Great Britain, is of very considerable extent, being from the most southern promontory of Scone to the northern extremity of Swedish Lapland, not less than 1150 British miles in length, and in breadth about 600, viz. from the Norwegian Alps to the limits of Russia. The contents in square miles have been computed at 208,912; and the inhabitants at 2,326,000, out of which number 45,000 bear arms, they are of distinguished valour and hardihood, and elated with the former fame of the Swedish arms. The provinces of the Swedish monarchy may be arranged in the following manner.

- |  |                     |   |                     |
|--|---------------------|---|---------------------|
| 1. Upland.                               | 2. Sudermanland.    | } | Sweden<br>Proper.   |
| 3. Nerike.                               | 4. Westmanland.     |   |                     |
| 5. Dalecarlia.                           |                     |   |                     |
| 6. West Gothland.                        |                     |   |                     |
| 7. East Gothland.                        |                     |   |                     |
| 8. South Gothland.                       |                     |   |                     |
| 9. Jemtland.                             | 10. Angermanland.   | } | West<br>Norland.    |
| 11. Madelpad.                            | 12. Halsingland.    |   |                     |
| 13. Gastrickland. 14. Herjeadalen.       |                     |   |                     |
| 15. West Bothnia.                        |                     |   |                     |
| 16. Asele Lappmark.                      | 17. Umea            | } | Swedish<br>Lapland. |
| Lappmark.                                | 18. Pitea Lappmark. |   |                     |
| 19. Lulea Lappmark.                      | 20. Tornea          |   |                     |
| Lappmark. 21. Kemi Lappmark.             |                     |   |                     |
| 22. Uleaborg. 23. Wasa, or East Bothnia. |                     |   |                     |



24. Kuopio Karelen, or Carelia. }  
 25. Tavastland and Nyland. 26. } Finland.  
 Abo and Bjorneborg. 27. Kym- }  
 mengard.

28. Swedish Pomerania, in Upper Saxony.

As there is no evidence that the Celts ever penetrated to Scandinavia, the first population appears to have consisted of Finns, who, perhaps seven or eight centuries before the Christian Æra, were supplanted by the Goths, mythologically represented as having been conducted by Odin the god of war. No foreign conquest having since extended hither, the population continues purely Gothic in the southern parts. While in the North there remains of the Finns, already treated of in this work: above them the Laplanders, also described in these pages. The different parts of this kingdom present considerable varieties of temperature, but even in the middle regions winter maintains a long and dreary sway. The gulf of Bothnia becomes one field of ice: and travellers pass on it from Finland by the isles of Aland. In the most southern provinces where the grand mass of the people are centred, the climate may be compared to that of Scotland, which lies under the same parallel; but the western gales from the Atlantic which deluge the Scottish Highlands with perpetual rain, and form the chief obstacle to improvement, are but little felt. In the North the summer is hot, caused by the reflection of the numerous mountains, and the extreme length of the days.

No country can be diversified in a more picturesque manner, with extensive lakes, large transparent rivers, winding streams, wild cataracts, gloomy forests, verdant vales, stupendous rocks, and cultivated

fields. The soil is not the most propitious, but agriculture is conducted with skill and industry, so as much to exceed that of Germany and Denmark. Sweden may be in general considered as mountainous, in which respect it is strongly contrasted with Denmark proper, or Jutland. The chief mountains are in that elevated chain which divides Sweden and Swedish Lapland from Norway, from which successive branches run in a South East direction. It appears that the Granitic ridge of the chain is in Norway, while the flank, consisting as usual of Limestone, Puddingstone and Freestone verge into Sweden. The centre of the chain seems, as in the Alps and Pyrenees, to present the chief elevations, whence the mountains decline in height towards Lapland. In the centre and South of Sweden the red granite becomes very common: but in Westrogothia the mountains are often of Trap. Numerous are the forests of this kingdom, without the aid of which the mines could not be wrought; Dalecarlia in particular abounds with them, and the numerous lakes are generally skirted with wood to the margin of the water.

The dry rough sides of the mountains are covered with the heath, bearberry, and the Iceland and rein-deer lichen; the one an article of food to the inhabitants, the other the chief support of the animal whose name it bears: the bleak summits where even the heath cannot root itself are clothed with the beautiful *Azalea procumbens*, and other hardy plants. Sweden is intersected by numerous rivers, the most considerable flow from the lakes, without any great length of course, such as the Gotha, the only outlet of the vast lake of Wener, but impeded by many rocks

and cataracts; but the most considerable river is the Dahl; consisting of two conjunct streams, the Eastern and Western Dahl, which rise in the Norwegian Alps, give name to the province of Dalecarlia, and after a course of about 260 British miles, enter the Bothnic gulf about 10 miles to the East of Gefle, presenting, not far from its mouth, a celebrated cataract, which is esteemed little inferior to that of the Rhine at Schaffhausen, the breadth of the river being near a quarter of a mile, and the perpendicular height of the fall between 30 and 40 feet; the surrounding scenery also assists the effect, which is truly sublime.

Although the grand Scandinavian peninsula be divided by its political interests between Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, yet nature refuses to acknowledge any such distinction: it shall therefore be considered with respect to its botany as one great whole, nor can a sketch be given of its indigenous plants with more propriety than in the description of that territorial part of it, which, in extent, is superior to all the rest, and which reckons amongst its citizens the illustrious Linnæus, and several of his most eminent disciples. The Lowlands and lakes of Scandinavia are principally situated in the South of Sweden and Fiuland, and the great ranges of Alpine mountains are found near the Artic circle, or at least are confined to the northern provinces; hence it is that Lapland, both from its elevation and its northern site contains several plants which are not to be met with in the rest of the Peninsula. Several species are common both to England and Scandinavia, and though the Flora of Britain be the most copious of the two, yet the superiority is not perhaps so great as

might be expected from the difference of climate. If those species that are natives of our chalk cliffs and southern coasts are for the most part wanting to Scandinavia, yet this last contains several German and Artic plants, which are not to be found in our own island. Of timber trees there are but few species: the most common, and those which constitute the wealth of Scandinavia, are the Norway pine, and the fir, of these there are immense forests spread over the rocky mountains, deepening with their sullen hue the whole horizon: thousands of gigantic growth are every winter overthrown by the storms, and allowed to perish where they fall, from the impossibility of transporting them to the sea: others in more accessible situations, are converted to various human uses; the wood from its lightness and straightness is excellent for masts and yards, and various domestic purposes: the juice, as tar, turpentine, and pitch, is almost of equal value with the wood, and the inner bark, mixed with rye-meal, furnishes a coarse bread in time of scarcity. The mountain ash, the alder, the birch, dwarf-birch, and several kinds of willow, are found in the whole peninsula; the lime, the elm, the ash, and the oak, though growing with freedom in the southern parts, are incapable of withstanding the rigours of a Lapland winter. Among the larger shrubs the German tamarisk, and the barberry are met with chiefly in the South; the burnet-rose, the gale, the raspberry, and the juniper, are hardy enough to flourish even within the Artic circle. The lower woods and thickets afford the *linnara borealis* in great abundance, with the *mezereon*, the *hepatica*, and the *cornus suecia*. The firwoods yield two sorts of *pyrola*, and the shady sides of the mountains and

Alpine lakes are adorned by the *serratula alpina*, *tussilago frigida*, the wolfsbane aconite, globe flower, and the splendid *pedicularis sceptrum*. The plants of Lapland may be divided into those which are common to this and more southern countries, and those which are scarcely ever met with beyond the limits of the Arctic circle; among the former may be particularized *azalea procumbens*, *saxifraga cernua*, and *rhodiola rosea*, all growing in immense numbers on the highest mountains: the red currant, whortleberry, cloudberry, and stonebramble, the berries of all which are gathered in great quantities and preserved under the snow till winter, at which time, mixed with reindeer's milk, they form an agreeable variety in the food of the inhabitants: the moist woods are perfumed during the short summer months by the fragrance of the lilly of the valley. The vegetables peculiar to Lapland, and which grow either on the highest mountains, or on the shore of the northern ocean are *diapensia lapponica*, *andromeda cærulea*, and *tetragona*, *rubus arcticus*, *ranunculus hyperboreus*, *pedicularis lapponica*, *gnaphalium alpinum*, *salix lapponum*, and *azalea lapponica*. Sweden abounds with natural curiosities of various descriptions, particularly lakes and cataracts, but it would be in vain to attempt to describe the many singular and sublime scenes, which occur in so variegated and extensive a country, and we trust the reader will be amused and gratified with the description he will find under the head of Sweden, of beautiful lakes and picturesque views of landscapes, depicted in a homely manner, unadorned by poetic fiction, or the romantic language of a heated imagination; charming more in proportion as truth guides the pen, than if the

genii of romance had shed its influence over the pages of the European Delineator.

Few countries can rival this in the number and extent of lakes, which appear in almost every province; of these the most important is the Wener, which is about eighty British miles in length, and about fifty in breadth, in great part surrounded with forests, and rocks of red granite; it receives twenty-four rivers, abounds with fish, and contains many romantic isles. Next is the Weter, a lake of equal length but inferior in breadth, which seldom exceeds twelve miles: it contains two remarkable islands of basaltes, and on the shores are found agates, cornelians and touch-stones, or pieces of fine basaltes; it is clear though deep, and while it receives about forty small rivers, has no outlet except the Motala, many other lakes are found in the North of Sweden, among which the most celebrated is that of Stor, in the province of Jemtland, nor let us forget the lake Meler, at the conflux of which with the Baltic is founded the city of Stockholm, this lake extends about sixty British miles in length, by eighteen in breadth, and is sprinkled with picturesque isles. To the South West, is the lake of Hielmar, from which, utility is anticipated, by means of inland navigation.

The most renowned mineral waters in Sweden, are those of Medevi, in Eastern Gothland. Of late a laudable attention has been paid to inland navigation, and the chief effort has been to form a canal between Stockholm and Gothenburg, in this canal, conducted along the river Gotha, stupendous excavations have been made through the granite rocks, in order to avoid cataracts, one of which, more than sixty feet, is

called the infernal fall ; yet the plans have greatly failed from the ignorance of the engineers, and the first expence ought to have been to procure a superintendant of real skill from England, who are unrivalled therein.

The intention was to conduct an inland route from the lake Meler to that of Hielmar, and thence to that of Wener ; and by the river Gotha, an outlet of the latter, to the skager rock and German sea.

This grand design is already in some measure completed, and in the year 1800, the rivers, and old canals of Finland were ordered to be cleared ; but in that region the ice affords the easiest mode of communication. The roads are in general far superior to those of Denmark and Norway, and seems to be the very stamina of national improvement.

Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, has had the fate of all those proud cities, to which the riches of states are conveyed, and in which they are accumulated. Except some few shades, arising from different degrees of opulence and population, it exhibits the same scenes as other Metropolitan cities. Here we may see the madness of luxury passing from the superior to the inferior classes : a taste for pleasure giving birth to a dislike for labour, and the performance of one's duty ; and seduction sacrificing numberless unhappy victims to satisfy brutal and inordinate passion. Here also we meet with professed gamblers in abundance ; fine gentlemen and fine ladies, good-natured husbands, and modish wives, who take advantage of their simplicity and condescension. The fashions and customs which are imported from France always obtain here a decided preference, this sometimes produces singular effects,

which form a whimsical contrast with the climate, and the indelible traits of national character.

Among the public amusements in the capital, those most worthy of attention are the theatrical representations. The opera here has attained to a degree of perfection which astonishes strangers; original pieces are sometimes performed, the rest are translated from the French, but the preference is always given to those which have the music of Gluck's composition.

The theatre, called the dramatic, is destined for plays, and the higher species of comedy: that called the comic is set apart for pieces of a less serious nature, and for farces. The French comedy was formerly reserved for the court, but of late years it has been open to the public; a taste for the drama has been diffused from the capital into the provinces. Theatres are established at Gothenburg, Norkoepping, Carlscrona, Obo, and Fahlun. Government have established at Stockholm, a tribunal of police, on the plan of that at Paris, which is much respected, and has at its head the governor of the city. Watchmen are distributed in all quarters of the capital, who go the rounds in winter from nine, and in summer, from ten in the evening, till four in the morning; they call out the hours, and during the whole night, all the streets resound with the following words, "May the good and all-powerful arm of God preserve our city from fire and flames;" the hours are announced also from the tops of towers, by an instrument, the melancholy sounds of which are not very agreeable to those who cannot enjoy sleep, and which must astonish an English traveller on his first arrival in Stockholm. It is built on seven small islands, which are joined together by twelve wooden bridges,



and is neither walled nor fortified, being naturally secured by little rocks and islands which surround it, its situation is between a creek, or inlet, of the Baltic sea and the lake Meler, and is singularly romantic; a variety of contrasted and enchanting views are formed by numberless rocks of granite, rising boldly from the surface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houses or feathered with woods, somewhat resembling Venice, but with greater diversity of prospect; most of the houses are of stone, or brick, covered with white stucco; except in the suburbs, where several are of wood, painted red, as usual in this country. This city was founded by the Earl Birger, Regent of the kingdom, about the middle of the thirteenth century, and in the seventeenth century, the royal residence was transferred hither from Upsal; the entrance to the harbour is through a narrow strait, of somewhat difficult access, especially as there are no tides, and for four months in the year is frozen, it is however deep, and capable of receiving great numbers of vessels: the royal palace stands in a central and high situation, and there is a castle, an arsenal and several academies. The manufactories are few, of glass, china, woollen, linen, silk, &c. In it there are several palaces covered with copper, its arsenal is famous, and from the most recent returns made of its inhabitants, eighty thousand may be stated as the nearest approaching the real number thereof. The streets are inconveniently and inelegantly narrow, none being wider than an English lane, nor is there any considerable place or square worthy the attention of the traveller; there is however an establishment in Stockholm, superseding the use of taverns, founded by gentlemen on a liberal footing, called *La Société* for

for noblesse, officers of the garrison, and strangers : it is at the court end of the town, and consists of three hundred members, most of them of nobility ; officers of rank, and foreign ministers, and their suits ; there is also another for merchants and strangers. A national bank is also established here. The inns are intolerable, but the lodgings good, which compensates for the other inconveniences. Next in dignity to the capital ranks Upsal, the only Archbishopric, and formerly esteemed the chief city of the kingdom ; but at present, the inhabitants, exclusive of the students, do not exceed three thousand, its university is the most ancient and renowned of any in Sweden, containing about five hundred students ; its library is richly furnished with books, embracing every subject of useful information, remitted by Gustaf Adolph, when his victorious arms penetrated deeply into Germany, Sweden having thus acquired by war the first materials of her literary fame. But Swedish literature can hardly be said to have dawned till the middle of the seventeenth century, when the Queen Christiana, finding the country immersed in ignorance, invited Grotius, Descartes, and other celebrated men, who though they did not reside long in the kingdom, yet sowed the seed of letters, which gradually began to prosper in the wise and beneficent reign of Charles XI. In the last century the name of Linnæus alone, might distinguish the national literature, and it is joined in natural history with those of Tilas, Wallerius, Quist, Cronstedt, Bergman and others ; in history, Dalin, and Lagerbring have distinguished themselves by a precision and force which the Danes seem to sacrifice to antiquarian discussions. Sweden also boasts of native poets and orators ; and the progress of the sciences is





*A Swedish Gentleman.*

supported by the institution of numerous academies. The Archbishop of Upsal is always speaker of the clergy, constituting one of the four states of the Diet. Gotheborg, or Gothenburg, in the province of West Gothland, is esteemed the second city in Sweden, having a population of 20,000, though it was only founded by Charles IX, or rather Gustaf Adolph. It is a fortified and commercial town, seated at the mouth of the river Gotha, which forms an excellent harbour, and is the best situated for foreign trade of any in the kingdom, as it lies without the sound. The herring fishery greatly contributes to its wealth; the streets are uniform, and its circumference is computed at nearly three miles.

Carlskrona, was founded by Charles XI. in 1680, this city, and Stralsund, in Swedish Pomerania, are supposed equal in population, and computed at 11,000 each. Even including the royal palaces, Sweden does not boast many splendid edifices. Wismar is another town possessed by Sweden on the northern shore of Germany. None of the other towns in this extensive kingdom contain more than 4,000 inhabitants.

The Swedes are distinguished from other Europeans by a national dress, established in 1777, with the laudable design of repressing luxury in the article of clothes. The dress of the men is a compound of the Spanish fashion, the coat, which is very short, fits close to the body, is buttoned quite down, and fastened about the waist with a sash; the cloak reaches below the knee, and hangs loosely on the back, though it be commonly wide enough to wrap the body up in it as in a Spanish cloak; the usual colour is black, the cloak is lined with scarlet coloured silk, made of the same stuff with the sash and waistcoat, and with

the same the seams of the coat are also covered ; there is a particular ornament belonging to the coat, upon the shoulder, which consists of narrow pieces of silk, fastened upon the seam that joins the sleeve to the body of the coat ; this addition makes the shoulders look broader, and often improves the appearance.

Anxious to indulge the eye with the " fair form of things," as well as gratify the imagination, we have called to our aid the efforts of the pencil, in the designation of " a Swedish Gentleman ;" to which plate we refer our readers, convinced that not only the more prominent features of National Costume will be traced therein, but even the minutia thereof will be found correspondent with our description.

In court dresses, the cloaks, the buttons, the girdles, and the shoe strings, are of a flame colour.

The women wear a black robe, with puffed gauze sleeves, a coloured sash and ribbands. Those who go to court have their sleeves of white gauze. There is also a particular uniform for gala days. The men appear in a blue sattin suit, lined with white, and ornamented with lace ; the women in a white sattin robe, with coloured sash and ribbands.

Two days of the year, the first of May and midsummer, are in Sweden particularly consecrated to public mirth and joy. On the first of May, large fires, which seem to announce that natural warmth about to succeed the severity of the winter, are kindled in the fields, around these, people assemble, while others go to enjoy good cheer, and with the glass in their hands to banish care and sorrow. Midsummer day is still better calculated to inspire mirth and festivity : the fine season is then established, the sun every where diffuses his vivifying rays ; the tenants of the

woods, freed from their long captivity, tune their throats to joy : the flocks range the fields at their ease, to taste the juicy grass, and man, awakened from that lethargy into which he had been sunk, together with all nature, seems to be animated by a new soul, while his faculties resume their wonted vigour, and his heart becomes open to the soft impressions of sensibility.

On the evening before this happy period, the people assemble ; the houses are ornamented with boughs, and the young men and young women erect a pole, around which they dance till morning ; having recruited their strength by some hours of repose, they repair to church, and after imploring the protection of the supreme being, they again give themselves up to fresh effusions of joy ; during these two festivals, the people display all their gaiety by dances and songs, the greatest part of which are national. The inhabitants of the Southern provinces, endeavour to provide places of shelter from the heat, and those of the North employ all their ingenuity to preserve themselves from the cold ; this art is well known in Sweden. Pelisses are much worn by the ladies, and boots lined with furs by the gentlemen, and are found of excellent service in these cold regions. The major part of the houses are of wood, which when well constructed, and kept in good repair, are warmer than those built of brick or stone ; they likewise contract less moisture, and are not so apt to retain that nourisher of cold. Great numbers of stoves are used in the houses, constructed in such a manner as is most suitable to the country : the tubes, or pipes, of them, are so twisted as to make the heat circulate, and to prevent it from being too soon dissipated, by means of a lever, the air may be condensed or rarefied at pleasure ; wood

here is not dear, and little care is employed to save it; the price of provision is equally moderate, but the case is not the same with labour and objects of luxury; the lower classes of people live principally upon hard bread, salted, or dried fish, and water gruel; beer is their ordinary beverage, which they can procure exceedingly cheap; meats in great plenty always abound at the tables of the rich and opulent, and their repast is preceded by a kind of collation, consisting of butter, cheese, salt provisions, and strong liquors. Strangers are astonished to see women here often swallow large quantities of these liquors, with as much ease and avidity as the men. The consumption of wine is very great in Sweden, but people seldom drink it to excess. One cannot travel here without being struck with the arrangements which administration have formed to facilitate so desirable an object; they bear a peculiar character, altogether national. The peasants furnish horses, at regulated prices per mile, and it is customary to pay one third more per mile in cities, than in other places: the horses are small, and make but little show, compared with that noble animal in England, but they go very fast, especially in winter, the sledge passes over lakes, covered with ice and snow, with an almost incredible swiftness; and an Englishman, used to other vehicles in travelling, can form no adequate notion of the distance he has gone, in a limited time, from the velocity with which the sledge urges its way. If you treat the peasants with mildness, they are gratefully obsequious, and you may command their services in an unlimited degree: it is only in the neighbourhood of the capital, where they are unruly, self-interest prompting thereunto, as in most other countries.



The opening and closing of the Swedish diet exhibits a grand and beautiful spectacle, the king, in all the insignia of royal majesty, goes from the castle to the cathedral, followed by the states in procession, where divine service is performed as usual, except that the sermon is always preached by a bishop; from the cathedral, the king repairs to a hall in the castle, destined to receive the representatives of the nation: the assembly is then formed, and the monarch, seated on his throne, delivers a discourse, to which the marshal and the speakers return an answer; if there are any petitions to be laid before the states, they are read by the chancellor of the court: every thing engages the attention of the spectator in this august scene, but nothing strikes him so much as the part acted by the peasants. How delightful to see the labourer in a simple and rustic dress, take his seat close to other citizens; approach the throne with confidence, and speak to his sovereign without fear, and without embarrassment. Ye unfortunate peasants of Russia and Poland, how different is your condition from this noble state of existence! you moisten the earth with the sweat of your brow, you till it with pain, and the sweet idea of none of those privileges or advantages which do honour to humanity, and exalt mankind, ever alleviates your misfortunes, or carries joy and consolation to your cottages! you have neither country, nor possessions; cruel despots too often have sacrificed you to their caprice, and you dare not give vent to those complaints which a torn and bleeding heart conveys to your lips.

We cannot pass over in silence that remarkable tribe, whose name alone recalls the idea of patriotism and courage.

Under a rigorous sky, amidst mountains covered with snow, during eight months of the year, the Dalecarlians accustom themselves to the severest labours, and fear no fatigue. Like the rocks which surround them, they brave every attack; proud and intrepid, as all mountaineers are, they detest slavery, resist oppression, and, attached to their manners and customs, they transmit them from generation to generation, unchanged by time or circumstance.

Placed upon an ungrateful and barren soil, they have often no other nourishment than bread composed of the coarsest meal, mixed with the bark of trees; gruel seasoned only with water and salt, or dried fish.

These people emigrate, in great numbers, to seek for a maintenance in the more opulent provinces, more especially in the capital: they are employed in public as well as in private works, and in whatever they undertake, they show as much intelligence as honesty. Whilst they are absent from their native country, they observe the strictest economy in their manner of living, and endeavour to save enough to return, and to supply their wants, which are not numerous. Simple, open, and sincere, the Dalecarlians are not sufficiently on their guard against fraud and deception; the cunning of some dexterous adventurers has often engaged them in enterprises, as contrary to their interest as to that of the state; but the blame cannot fall upon them, they have never entertained any criminal intentions, the only object they had in view was, to support the privileges of the nation. The most brilliant period of their history is, that of those exploits by which they signalized themselves, by heroic valour. Under the banners of Gustavus 1st, they delivered their fellow citizens from the yoke of oppression, and at the same

time saved their country. To the lovers of freedom it will afford gratification, to be informed that these noble minded rustics, headed by Gustaf Wase, whom we style Gustavus Vasa, delivered their country from the yoke of Denmark, after a contest which forms one of the most interesting portions of modern history. The revolt may be considered as having commenced when Gustaf appeared at Mora, in this province, A. D. 1520, and completed after a most glorious struggle, which lasted three years, when he entered Stockholm in triumph.

Dissatisfied with the power of a corrupt clergy, which had repeatedly subjugated the kingdom to Danish thralldom, this great prince, in the year 1527, introduced the reformed religion, and gave it unequivocal protection and encouragement, during a glorious reign of thirty-seven years, which terminated his mortal career, at the advanced age of seventy.

The pleasure we feel in beholding the semblance of men, who have by valour broke the fetters of despotism, and relieved their country from a foreign yoke, together with the picturesque and athletic appearance of the Dalecarlians, have induced us to present our readers with the costume of a male and female peasant of this noble, though humbled race; which we flatter ourselves will prove acceptable to Englishmen, whose national characteristic is love of liberty. Shoes resembling English clogs are worn by both sexes of Dalecarlian peasants, out of which, over the instep, either for convenience or ornament is displayed pieces of cloth, corresponding with the cuffs of the coat, or bodice, as the wearer happens to be male or female, thick yarn stockings, drawn over the breeches, and gartered above the knees with red garters;

are worn by the men, who appear more desirous to enjoy the comfort of warmth than to display symmetry or proportion in a graceful leg; plain breasted, short coats, either black or white, without collar, and bound down the front with red, give them a homely appearance, and which, together with a long beard and an uncouth but nervous dialect, distinguish them from the other inhabitants of Sweden; their waistcoats are very seldom seen, from a custom which prevails amongst them of wearing the coat closed up to the chin by means of hooks and eyes, instead of buttons; the cuffs do not go entirely round the wrists, but appear calculated for shielding the hands from cold, by turning them down, and thereby covering the fingers; in the low crown and broad brim of the hat before us, is recognised the friendly beaver of the followers of George Fox.

The other subject of our plate exhibits a whimsical simplicity, strongly contrasting with the female villagers of our country, who with the exception of a long peaked cap, which is ornamented with a border, appears completely clad in woollen; over a russet petticoat the women wear an apron of many colours, much resembling those worn by weavers of woollen cloth, in villages, in England, where that article is manufactured; a bodice, or jacket, with sleeves down to the hands supersedes the use of gowns, which like the coat of the male is fastened in the front with hooks and eyes, or small clasps, like his too, it sports its cuffs, and, which, by fitting close round the neck, renders the use of a neckerchief unnecessary.

Having as briefly as possible described the costume of "Dalecarlian Peasants," we shall dismiss the plate after observing, that, imagination, that fertile and in-





*Topham*

*Dulcanian Musants.*

ventive painter, views in the raised profile of the one, the anxious solicitude of maternal love, waiting a reply from the other, to an interrogatory respecting the fate of an absent son, whom she may conclude is perhaps numbered amongst the slain of her countrymen, who die fighting their country's battles ; and in the other, whose blanched locks and beard, time has rendered venerable, the index of a pure mind, studying a plausible answer, by which to divert her attention from so painful an inquiry, and at the same time sooth her foreboding fears, without prevaricating, or descending to the meanness of falsehood. Though no particular passion betrays itself in the age-stricken face of the father ; yet the connoisseur will read much in the earnestness with which he grasps his rustic stick ; nor will the pressure of his thumb against the fore finger of his left hand escape his judicious eye ; both which actions, simple as they may appear to the undiscerning, indicate muscular motion, excited by the feelings of the soul, though respect for the object before whom he stands may have placed him on his guard against a disclosure of the workings of his mind appearing in the contours of the face.

There are other provinces in Sweden, exclusive of Swedish Lapland and Dalecarlia, of whose natives we shall briefly remark that, the Scandian, who cultivates a fertile soil, and who commonly possesses a moderate share of wealth, is sensible of the happiness he enjoys, and cheerfully imparts it to others. The Smolander, his neighbour, placed amidst barren rocks, and melancholy woods, is humble, mild and submissive : the 'smallest reward will satisfy him, and he testifies his gratitude in the most simple and affecting manner.

The Westrogoth, who likewise inhabits a country little favoured by nature, is well acquainted with the resources of industry, and puts them in practice; above all, he understands to perfection every kind of traffic.

The Ostrogoth has nothing against him but his name; he is distinguished by his politeness; his affability, and the easiness of his manners. He resembles that nature with which he is surrounded, and which every where presents itself under the most pleasing aspects. The vicinity of the capital gives to the Sudermanian and the Uplander a double physiognomy, the natural features of which have been disfigured. The Westmanian prepossesses by a noble figure, a firmness and steadiness of character, and simple, but mild manners.

The inhabitant of that district called Norland, is very tall; has an intrepid look; and frankness and loyalty are painted in his countenance. Thus, by examining each province in particular, we find various shades of a deeper or lighter cast. However, the manners and customs of the superior classes in Sweden are so much tinged with those of the French, that no striking peculiarity can be observed, and even the peasantry have so much vivacity and address, that they have been styled the French of the North.

We have already noticed the joyous and festive manner in which the Swedes hail the eves of May and Midsummer day; nor is it to be wondered at, when we are informed that, with them, there is neither Spring nor Autumn. Summer bursts suddenly from Winter, and vegetation is quick, the vallies are green in a few days, which were before covered with snow: this verdant prospect lasts but about three months, during which short period they sow and plant; the



women here taking upon themselves the toils of husbandry, go to plough, and, when ready, thrash out the corn; nor does female industry stop here, they also row upon the water, serve the bricklayers, and, like our porters, carry burthens; like the men they are in general healthy, complaisant and courageous; both sexes can endure hunger, cold, and poverty. Their animals are similar to those of Norway. To their horses a decided preference is given over those of Germany, for purposes of war. Sweden abounds in venison and fish, and the Gulf of Finland furnishes them with innumerable Seals, from which they produce train oil in sufficient quantity to render it an article of commerce, which they export. There is excellent pasturage, but not much corn. The neat cattle and sheep do not seem to present any thing remarkable. Among the wild animals may be named the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the beaver, the otter, the glutton, and the flying squirrel. Among the feathered tribe one or two singular kinds of falcons present themselves, and an infinite variety of game. Of modern mineralogy Sweden may perhaps be pronounced the parent country, and her authors, Wallerius Cronstedt, and Bergman have laid the foundation of the science; it would therefore be a kind of literary ingratitude not to bestow due attention to it in this place. First in dignity, though not in profit, are the gold mines of Adelfors in the province of Smoland: the gold is sometimes native and sometimes combined with sulphur. Some ores of copper are also found in the same vein, which likewise presents galena and iron.

In the production of silver it yields greatly to Norway; yet the mine of Sala, or Salberg, maintains some

reputation ; the silver is in limestone, there are about 100 veins greater or smaller. The silver is seldom found native, but is procured from the galena or lead ore. The chief copper mines are in Dalecarlia.

On the East of the town of Fahlun is a great copper mine, supposed to have been worked for near 1000 years. The metal is not found in veins, but in large masses : and the mouth of the mine presents an immense chasm nearly three quarters of an English mile in circumference, the perpendicular depth being 1020 feet ; about 1200 miners are employed. Sweden is not entirely deficient in lead : but iron forms the principal product, and the mine of Danamora is particularly celebrated for the superiority of the metal which is in England called oregrund iron.

Cobalt is found at Basna, and Zinc at Danamora : while the mines of Sala present native antimony ; and molybdena appears at Norberg. Coal has been recently discovered in the province of Scone.

The mines of Danamora have no galleries, but are worked in the open air by means of deep excavations ; the ore is in a limestone rock, and occupies about 300 persons in twelve pits. The iron mine of Taberg in Smoland consists of beds of ore of a blackish brown, separated by beds of mould without any stone, and is an enormous pile ; yet it is rivalled by an entire mountain of iron ore near Tornea, in Swedish Lapland ; and at Lulea the mountain of Gellivar forms a mass of rich iron ore, of a blackish blue, extending like an irregular vein for more than a mile, and in thickness from 300 to 400 fathom. Sweden abounds with beautiful granite ; but in marble yields to Norway. Porphyry also appears in the mountains of Swucku, and many other parts. The manufactures

of this country are not numerous, consisting chiefly of those of iron, steel, copper and brass; cloths, hats, watches, and sail cloths; nor are those of cotton, silk, and wool to be forgotten, since in the year 1785, it was computed that 14,000 persons were employed in the manufacture thereof. The commerce of Sweden rests chiefly on the exports of its native products, say, iron, copper, tar, pitch, hemp, and timber: of these iron is the most considerable; nor is it to be wondered at when the number of mines in the kingdom are about 25,600.

Herrings also form a considerable article of export; while those of importation are chiefly tobacco, sugar, coffee, wines, silks, and drugs. And as this country's growth of corn is in general inadequate to its consumption, grain of various kinds are annually imported, particularly rye.

The Goths were the ancient inhabitants of Sweden, who, joined by the Normans, Saxons, Vandals, &c. subdued the Roman Empire. In 1387 it was united to Denmark and Norway, under Margaret, by the well-known union of Calmar, and continued so till 1523, when the famous Gustavus Vasa expelled the Danes, since which time it has remained independent. The revolution of 1772 pretended to restore the form established by Charles XI. and which had lapsed into a factious mixture of Aristocracy: but by the act of union, 1782, the constitution became an absolute monarchy; the monarch having arrogated not only the rights of peace and war, and the administration of justice, but the imposition of taxes, without the consent of the Diet, which cannot deliberate on any subject till it be proposed by the Sovereign. The Diet consists of Nobles, and landed Gentlemen

Clergy, and Burgesses, or Deputies of towns, and those of the peasantry. Each of the four States has a speaker; the Archbishop of Upsal being always the speaker of the Clergy, while the King nominates the other. As the monarch is not opulent, it is evident that so large and respectable a body might constitute a formidable barrier, but the evils of faction have been so great and impendent, and the Russian power and influence so destructive to the very existence of the state, that the Deputies seem justly to regard the dictatorial power of the monarch as necessary to their own preservation. In 1792 Gustavus III. King of Sweden was basely assassinated at a masquerade, by a Swedish nobleman of the name of Ankarstrom. On his death-bed he nominated his brother, the Duke of Sudermania, Regent, during the minority of his son, the heir to the throne. Short was the reign of this young King, who was deposed by his uncle, the Duke, he with a bold hand seizing the Government. Bernadotte, a French General, whose counsel and valour, aided by an extensive knowledge of military tactics, raised him to the highest esteem in his native country, is at present seated on the Swedish throne; he is styled the Crown Prince of Sweden, in which exalted station he is revered by his subjects, to whom he administers justice impartially; and who, by attaching himself to Great Britain and her Allies, became a decided enemy to the late Ruler of France, at a time when his assistance was of the greatest moment to the common cause of confederated Europe. Such alliance enabled him to cover himself and subjects in arms with laurels, which will retain their verdure unfaded as long as history records the glorious battle of Leipsic, fought in October 1813. And





*A Swedish Officer.*

convinced surrounding nations of the zeal with which a love of liberty can stimulate a nation, when once roused to a just sense of impending danger, by a calm contemplation of the monopolizing schemes of ambition.

As the Swedes have formerly given proof of their prowess when justice has called them to the field, England may augur the happiest results from an union of interests with them; and nations now liberated from oppression, bless the day that gave to Bernadotte the Crown of Sweden. Under the military discipline of their present sovereign, these courageous people may acquire a knowledge of the use of arms, which will at once enable them to repel the attacks of bold invaders, or fulfil their engagements with their Allies in such a manner as to crown themselves with military honours.

From amongst the battalions of the people under consideration, we have selected the costume of an Officer, and we trust the correctness with which it is delineated will guarantee its reception with lovers of the graphic art, whilst its striking contrast, with others given in the course of the work, will insure it a welcome amongst the admirers of novelty.

The language of Sweden is a dialect of the Gothic, being a sister of the Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic. The name of the country in this language is *Suithood*, and is said by the Northern Antiquaries to imply a country whose woods had been burnt or destroyed, which name seems as ancient as Tacitus, who, after describing the *Suiones*, who lived in islands of the ocean, passes to the *Sitones*, and afterwards to the nations of the farther end of the Baltic. The *Sitones* must have dwelled in the southern pro-

vinces of Sweden ; and the name either have been derived from Sictuna, the old name of the chief town, or from Suithood, the native term, softened as usual by the Roman enunciation. In the two grand divisions of the Gothic, consisting of the German and Scandinavian dialects, the latter is distinguished by greater brevity and force of expression. In the south of Sweden, where the chief mass of population is found, some German and French words have been adopted, while the Dalecarlian on the North West, is esteemed a peculiar dialect, perhaps only because it contains more of the ancient terms and idiom. In the antiquity of literature, Sweden cannot pretend to vie with Denmark, Norway, or Iceland, the most early native chronicle, or perhaps literary composition, being not more ancient than the fourteenth century : A taste, however, for literature prevails amongst the higher classes ; drawing, sculpture, architecture, agriculture, &c. are all encouraged. The great Puffendorf, who ranked so high as a statesman, civilian, and historian, received his birth in Sweden. As the major part of the readers of this work will in all probability be protestants, or protestant dissenters, it may be gratifying to them to be informed that during the reign of Gustaf Adolph. A. D. 1611,---1633, when Austria, Spain, and the other catholic countries conspired to extirpate the protestant religion in Germany, the Swedes cheerfully espoused the cause of the Reformers, fought their battles, and under the banners of this great King, carried their victorious arms to the banks of the Rhine and the Danube. When, after a glorious struggle, by which they freed them from Papal authority, they established Lutheranism in Germany, which is the prevailing



religion at the present day in Sweden, none else being tolerated here: Christianity having been introduced into Sweden in the ninth century.

The naval operations of 1792 proved particularly destructive to the Swedish fleet, which consisted of 30 ships of the line, but which at that period suffered a loss of one half of the whole number; nor do the Government of that country seem very desirous of replacing them by ships of war, as from the nature of the Baltic, which is full of low coasts and shoals, gallies of a flat construction are found to be more serviceable; therefore attention is paid to their equipment in preference to the more unwieldy vessels of war.

When the great extent of the Swedish territory is considered, the population will appear comparatively small, which may arise partly from the mountainous nature of the country, and partly from the severity of climate in the northern district; notwithstanding which, the nobility are so numerous as to be computed at 2,500 families, while the peasants amount to about 2,000,000 of souls.

The revenue of this kingdom is computed at about one million and a half sterling, which is equalled by the expences of government. The national debt cannot be much less than 10,000,000 sterling, which being chiefly incurred at Hamburgh, the country is overwhelmed with the paper money of that city; and the scarcity of gold and silver, and even of copper currency, is incredible. The ducat is the only gold coin, worth about nine shillings sterling; while the silver crown may be valued at four shillings and sixpence. The schelling, or shilling, is worth little more than one penny sterling, and the copper con-

sists of the half and quarter shilling, the ancient heavy pieces being very rarely visible. The ancient monuments of Sweden consist chiefly of judicial circles, and other erections of unhewn stones, followed by the monuments inscribed with Runic characters, some of which are as recent as the fifteenth century, and none of them can be safely dated more anciently than the eleventh. Not far from Upsal is the Morastan, or stone on which the King used to be enthroned, as the old Scottish monarchs were at Scone. The ancient temples, called Skior, or Skur, were of wood, and have consequently perished. Some of the old castles, erected since the use of stone, are remarkable for their resemblance to what are called Pictish castles in Scotland.

Sweden and Swedish Lapland abound with natural curiosities of various descriptions ; some of the lakes and cataracts have been already noticed ; and it would be in vain to attempt to describe the many and sublime scenes, which occur in so variegated and extensive a country.

### SWEDISH ISLANDS.

This kingdom possesses many islands, scattered in the Baltic sea and gulf of Bothnia. Rugen, the most southerly affords as it were a passage to the Swedish possessions in Pomerania. This isle formerly had its own Princes, who afterwards paid homage to the Danes : it was annexed to Sweden by the treaty of Westphalia, and is not a little productive in grain and cattle. Farther to the North East is the long island of Oland, in length about seventy miles, and in breadth about six. In the North are many fine

forests, while the southern part is more level and fertile. The horses are small but strong, and the forests abound with deer, nor is the wild boar unknown. It also produces freestone, touchstone, and alum; and the inhabitants are computed at near 8,000. Next occurs the island of Gothland, known to the literary world by the travels of Linnæus. It is about seventy miles in length, and twenty-four in breadth; a fertile district, and remarkable for an excellent breed of sheep. This island was subject to the Danes for near two centuries, till 1645, when it was restored to Sweden. The isles of Aland mark the entrance of the Bothnic gulf, deriving their name from the largest; which is about forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, containing about 9,000 inhabitants, who speak the Swedish language, though included in the government of Finland. These isles form as it were a barrier of rocks of red granite, stretching to the opposite shores. Sweden only possesses one small colony, that in the island of St. Bartholomew in the West Indies, which was ceded to them by the French in 1785.

The political importance of Sweden has been much diminished since the glorious reign of Gustaf Adolph, and the beneficent sway of Charles XI. Prior to the late Revolution in France, Sweden had remained a faithful ally of that kingdom, which excited her against any enemies in Germany, as Scotland was formerly involved in the wars between France and England. Yet, under the auspices and enterprising spirit of the present Ruler of Sweden, much may be expected; and it perhaps may not be an idle conjecture to venture an opinion that, the present generation may live to witness it regain its former preponderance in the political balance of Europe,

## NORWAY.

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**N**OTWITHSTANDING the recent annexation of Norway to Sweden, we shall consider it in our description thereof, as forming part of the Danish dominions ; aware that while we are selecting matter to fill these pages, Fortune's precarious wheel may revolve, and this country revert to the crown of Denmark, to which it has been subject so long, and from which its natives were severed with the greatest reluctance, on their parts ; by menaces and power, rather than affection, or any hope of bettering their condition, by an exchange of masters : And we feel confident that the good sense of enlightened Englishmen, with the unexpected and unparalleled Revolution in France before their eyes, will not deem us bigots in our surmises, and we are convinced that the most sceptical must allow the possibility of the event happening ; therefore, to follow its fate through all the mazes of Revolutionary uncertainties, would prove an endless, and perhaps a useless task ; so that we shall wave all further preamble, and proceed in our description, by observing that it is situate between 58 and 72 degrees of North latitude, and between 4 and 30 degrees of East longitude, and is most generally accounted between 900 and 1000 miles long, and about 250 broad. It is separated from the North of Denmark by the Scaggerac and the Cattegat, and lies along the North West coast of Europe. The eastern limits of Norway

are chiefly indicated by a long chain of mountains passing between that country and Sweden.

Norway is divided into four general governments, viz.

CHIEF TOWNS.	
Wardhuys,.....	Wardhuys.
Drontheim,.....	Drontheim.
Bergen,.....	Bergen.
Aggerhus,.....	{ Christiana, and Frederickshall.

The original possessors of Norway, which with Sweden constitutes the ancient Scandinavia, appear to have been the Fins and the Laps, who were driven to the northern extremities by the Gothic invasion, allegorically said to have been conducted by Odin, the god of war. The population has since continued pure and unmixed by foreign conquests; and the Norwegians still retain the muscular frame, blooming countenance, and yellow hair of the Normans, so well known in France, Italy, and England. The progressive geography of Norway, as may be expected, is more obscure than that of Denmark proper; nor is there any reason to believe that any part, except its most southern extremity, had been seen by the Roman mariners. Few materials even afterwards arise for the progressive geography of this country, till the time of Journaudes, whose account is succeeded by the navigation of Ohter, reported to the great Alfred, and the description by Adam of Bremen.

Norway is perhaps the most mountainous country in Europe, but in the South there are tracts of great fertility, and though often rocky, the soil is rich. The face of the country is prettily sprinkled with

numerous lakes and rivulets, and thickly dotted with cottages, rudely, though not unpleasantly situated on rocky eminences. In the midst of the luxuriant forest, the Norwegian Alps are frequently covered with dark forests of pines and firs, and the perpetual snow of the peaks is not accompanied with the glaciers and other terrors of the Alps. The climate greatly varies in Norway; at Bergen, the winter is moderate, and the sea practicable; the eastern part of Norway is commonly covered with snow. The cold sets in about the middle of October, and continues with intense severity till the middle of April; the waters being all that time frozen to a considerable thickness. At Bergen the longest day is about nineteen hours long, and the shortest about five. In summer the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the sky, and in the more northerly parts, about midsummer, the sun is continually in view, but in the depth of winter, in those parts, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon, for about an hour and a half; yet in the midst of their darkness the sky is so serene, and the Moon and the Aurora Borealis so bright, that they carry on their fishery, and work at their several trades in the open air, which is so pure in some of the inland parts of Norway, that it has been said that some of the inhabitants have lived so long as to be tired of life. The portion of arable ground is scanty, and far from sufficient to supply the consumption, but that mountainous country is however abundant in cattle, which, as in Switzerland, are driven to the heights in summer, and a patriotic society has so much encouraged agriculture of late years, that estates have risen nearly one-third in value. We have said that Norway is

mountainous, the grand chain, which divides that kingdom from Sweden, is known by distinct appellations as it passes through different provinces; but in a general point of view, the southern part of the Scandinavian chain, running nearly N. and S. and terminating at the province of Romsdal, is called Langfjall, or the long mountains; hence the part called Dofrafjall extends towards the East, ending above the Aursund, or Oresund; where it again proceeds almost due North: here also a considerable branch proceeds by Swucku &c. towards Sweden.

The third part of the range, from the north of the Oresund and the vicinity of the copper mines of Roras, is called the chain of Kolen, extending between Norway and Swedish Lapland, and afterwards bending in the form of a horse-shoe, on the south of Finmark. The height of these mountains was as usual extremely exaggerated, and compared with the Swiss Alps till more exactness was introduced into Orology. Mr. Pennant affords the most recent information on the subject. Mr. Ascanius, professor of mineralogy at Drontheim, who has made some surveys lately, says the highest in the diocese are not more than 60 fathoms from the surface of the sea; that the mountains fall to the western side from the distance of eight or ten Norwegian miles, each of which equals 18,000 feet: but to the eastern from that of forty of the same miles. The highest is Dovrefjæl in Drontheim and Tille in Bergen, they rise slowly, and do not strike the eye, like Ronsdals-horn, and Hornalen, which soar majestically from the sea. Areskutan, a solitary mountain of Jemtland, about four or five Swedish miles from the highest Alps, which separate Norway and Sweden, is said

to be 6162 English feet above the nearest rivers; Swuckustoet within the borders of Norway 4658 feet above the Lake Fæmund, and that lake is thought to be 2 or 3,000 feet above the sea, and finally Sylfiællen on the borders of Jemtland, is 3132 feet perpendicular from the height to the base. The construction of the Norwegian mountains has been little explored, nor is it understood whether the chief heights be calcareous like those of the Pyrenees, or granitic, as is rather to be conceived. Some considerable ones consist of sandstone. Norway abounds with beautiful marbles of various kinds, whence it appears that a considerable part is calcareous. Lapis ollaris is found in great quantities, with which is built the cathedral of Drontheim and other edifices. The Magnet, and the Asbestos, both of which possess such wonderful properties are found here. The mineralogy of the Danish dominions is chiefly restricted to Norway, for in Jutland and the Isles no important discoveries have arisen. About the year 1645 some Gold ore was found near Arindal, of which the Ducats were struck, but Norway, in Gold, yields greatly to the Swedish mines of Aldenfors, and only claims the superiority in Silver, the mines of Konsberg about forty British miles to the S. W. of Christiana, having been long reputed the richest in Europe: and one mass of native silver in the royal cabinet weighs 409 marks, being worth 3,000 rix-dollars, or 600l. the rock consists of vertical banks of micaceous schistus, with garnets, limestone, and Quartz; the veins of metal are from half an inch to more than two feet in thickness, sometimes accompanied with large grained limestone, but oftener with spar. These mines were discovered in



1623 by two peasants, they are wrought by 36 shafts, and used to yield about £70,000 annually, when 4000 men were employed, but 2400 have been removed to the cobalt mines at Fossum, 20 miles to the North, and it is supposed that the produce barely defrays the expence, yet they supply the mint with currency; the largest coin being of eight Danish skillings, or four-pence sterling, and it is esteemed a peculiarity of this mine, that it may be little productive during a year or two, when suddenly a rich vein is discovered which amply repays the loss of labour. Norway also possesses other silver mines at Tarlsberg in the same region, about thirty miles to the north east discovered in 1726, but of no particular moment.

The important copper mines of Roras, about sixty eight British miles south-east of Drontheim, were discovered in 1644, they are in the southern slope of the chain of Doffra, in a rock of what the Germans call *hornschiefer*, the veins are from six inches to six ells in thickness, and the ore of a pale yellow. In general the mines of Roras are very productive and a source of considerable revenue. Other copper mines are at Quickne and Selboe, about 50 miles to the east of Drontheim, and at other places. The mines of cobalt at Fossum, a recent discovery, ought not to be passed in silence, this mineral yields smalt or powder blue, used in painting porcelain and earthenware, and in colouring starch; and the mine is supposed to produce a clear annual revenue to the crown of about £15,000, near it is a rich vein of quartz, containing large masses of talc. But the iron mines are esteemed the most profitable, they are chiefly situated not far from Arindal, in the southern

province of Christiansand : and near Skeen, between Arindal and Konsberg. Lead appears in the vicinity of Konsberg, and there are Alum works near Christiana. About 20 miles to the north of Bergen, the rocks abound with singular petrifications, the mountains are sometimes split, and engulfed by subterranean waters. The farm of Borre, in the province of Christiana, was in 1703 swallowed up with all its buildings, and there now remains only a chasm full of ruins and sand. The Danish Dominions being of such great extent, and variety of climate and aspect, there is a great diversity in the animal productions. The horses of Norway are remarkable for being of such diminutive size. The elk, though a more southern animal, sometimes appears in Norway, which is infested by the bear, the wolf, and the lynx. The lemming, or Norwegian mouse, proceeds from the ridge of Kolen, and sometimes spreads destruction like the locust ; these animals appear in vast numbers, proceeding from the mountains towards the sea, and devouring every product of the soil, it would seem that after consuming every thing eatable in their course, they at last devour each other ; this singular creature is of a reddish colour, and about five inches in length. Norway also boasts of eagles, and its falcons are reckoned the boldest and most spirited of any in Europe. About Roras the beaver is sometimes found white ; the rat is very common in Norway, and is a very voracious and destructive animal. The rein deer is also a native of this country, this animal resembles a stag, but is stronger, and the deep division of his hoofs are admirably adapted to tread on the snow, being suited by Providence to a cold climate, as the camel is to the hot

desert; the antlers of the rein deer are longer, and more branched than those of the stag, and they also decorate the brows of the female. The Norwegian mountains are generally clothed with pines and firs, and almost the whole country may be regarded as a forest, which supplies Europe with masts and other large timber; the botany of Norway is the same as given in the account of Sweden. In Norway, as in Sweden, the largest rivers are called *Elven*, or *Elbden*, those that rise in the Alpine chain and run towards the west, have in consequence but a short course, and the chief ports, as in the west of Scotland, are supplied by creeks, or inlets of the sea, with a great depth of water; the chief river of Norway is the *Glom*, or *Glommen*, which is not navigable, but full of Cataracts and shoals: yet above 50,000 trees, are annually floated upon it to Frederickstadt. Before it receives the *Worm* from the lake *Mioss*, it is as broad as the *Thames* at *Putney*, and its rugged course must render it a tremendous torrent; it springs from the lake of *Oresund*, on the north of the *Fœmond*, and runs nearly south, about 300 British miles. Next may be named the *Dramme*, which flows into the west side of the bay of *Christiana*, having received the *Beina*, and other considerable streams. Less remarkable rivers in the south of Norway are the *Louven*, the *Torrisdals* which runs by *Christiansand*, and others flowing from numerous lakes. The most numerous lakes in the Danish dominions, and the most extensive are found in the south of Norway, the lake of *Mioss* is about 60 British miles in length, but the breadth is in general inconsiderable, except toward the centre, where it is from 12 to 18 miles; it contains an

island about ten miles in circumference, fertile in corn, pasture, and wood. Next is the lake of Rands, or Rands-Sion, which is near 50 miles in length, but not more than two in breadth. The lake of 'Tyri is a beautiful piece of water, about 15 miles in length and breadth, diversified with many bays and creeks; the environs are delightful, consisting of corn fields, fertile meadows, and hanging forests, backed by lofty mountains, towering above each other. Farther to the north is the large lake of Fœmund, about 35 British miles in length, by 8 at its greatest breadth: this lake is celebrated by Bergonan as being surrounded by mountains of great height. These lakes, rivers, and cataracts, which intersect the mountains, render travelling dangerous.

But little land in Norway is subject to tillage. It is only on the elevated plains called Heddemarken, through which the Glommen flows, that the corn grown is adequate to the consumption of the inhabitants; and in this quarter it rarely happens that they have a superfluity to sell to their neighbours. In other parts, the constant nakedness of the rocks, in addition to the cold of the climate, oppose insurmountable obstacles to the culture of grain. Occasionally indeed, where the land is low, a few small patches are found between the rocks which exhibit fruitfulness; but these patches, the result of infinite toil on the part of the owners, the soil being almost wholly artificial, are very rare.

Tillage is moreover less common, from the casualties to which it is subject. In the spring and early months of summer, the heat is at times so excessive as to parch the roots of the grain, while the continual wet weather in autumn frequently

prevents its ripening, notwithstanding the practice adopted from the Swedes of exposing the sheaves to all the influence of the sun. The method used, is to suspend them from cross-bars, supported by long poles stuck in the ground. Nor is it in the first crop alone, in case of bad seasons, that the farmer suffers: too poor in general to be able to purchase other seed, he sows again the corn gathered before it had arrived at maturity, and the succeeding crop is in consequence degenerate. And although the fruit of his toil be uncertain, his labour and expence is constantly great; the land, too valuable to lay fallow, exacting an annual dunging. Owing to these various determents, the inhabitants prefer grazing to tillage.

Grazing, is most diligently pursued, and, compared with the pastures, the flocks and herds of the inhabitants are numerous. On the high plains and among the mountains are many spots where soil having collected, the *aira montana* and several other hardy grasses spring up, at an elevation too great to admit of corn to grow. To these places, called *Satern*, soon as the snow is thawed, and a milder air proclaims the birth of spring, the inhabitants drive their cattle from the stables in which they wintered. As, however, these little fields are frequently wide apart, and far from the abode of their owner, small wooden huts are constructed near them, for the habitation of the servant who accompanies them to their pastures. A shepherdess and dairymaid: the lonely girl, during her whole stay in this wilderness, scarcely ever beholds a human being. The bleating of the sheep, the lowing of the kine, and the music from the stunted woods of the birch and silver fir,

are the only sounds she hears, save once a week, when the farmer's wife, coming to take the butter and milk, and singing as she trudges on her way, proclaims her arrival before she is seen. Each of these girls has from sixteen to twenty of these green patches to attend, and subsists in her solitude chiefly on bread and strawberries, milk and cheese. About Michaelmas the cattle are driven back to their stalls, where they are supported on the hay collected from the home grounds in the summer; and to increase the crop from these, they are fresh dunged every year. As, however, the cattle are stalled for nearly eight months in the year, and the quantity of land whence they can gather hay is unequal to the maintenance of the large number of flocks and herds which they possess, the farmers collect, to augment their stock of winter fodder, an abundance of moss, which grows every where among the rocks, leaves of trees, the inner bark of the pine and fir, and, when near the sea, *fuci*, *ulvæ*, and other marine plants. In addition to these, he purchases fish of inferior value, and preserves the heads and refuse of such as is consumed in his family, dried in the open air. The proportion of bark is one load to two loads of hay, and one of straw or leaves. Before the fish is given to the cattle, it is boiled thoroughly, and the bones extracted; it is then mixed with the sea-plants and hay, and is greedily eaten by the cattle, whose milk, however singular it may appear, receives from this food no fishy or unpleasant flavour.

Most of the common grasses which grow in England, thrive well in Norway, particularly white and red clover. To the abundance of the latter is to be ascribed the quantity of milk afforded by the cows.

From the innumerable swarms of gnats and flies, with which the woods and marshes abound in Norway during the middle of summer, the cattle are so much tormented, that it would be impossible to milk them, were it not for the practice of kindling fires, to which they are driven, for the purpose; the smoke from these banishes the insects, yet not effectually; the task of milking, from the uneasiness of the animal being always painful.

From the scarcity of ground in favourable exposures, wherever any is found there is an inhabitant, surrounded by his sheep, his goats, and his bees. Of the latter there are great numbers, and the honey is excellent; many swarms, however, from the difficulty of pursuing them on their leaving the hive, in consequence of the ruggedness of the country, and the quantity of trees, become wild and fix in the woods.

One of the most productive sources of prosperity to Norway is its timber trade. The quantity of timber exported (chiefly to Great Britain and Holland) is prodigious. The felling of the trees in the interior, and floating them to the saw-mills on the rivers, or creeks, which communicate with the sea, give support to a very large portion of the population; and numbers are afterwards employed in sawing them at the mills, and transporting them abroad. Much wood is likewise used in the different forges and foundries, which is principally charred by the peasantry, although large quantities be made into coal by the proprietors of the forges themselves.

When the timber is felled from a certain spot, as there is generally in such places a portion of soil, that spot is uniformly subjected to culture, and either

yields fodder for cattle, or is sowed with grain : and agriculture requiring more hands than wood felling, the country is consequently benefited by the change in point of population.

Each individual, where the forests are inhabited, has a certain portion allotted to him, which is wholly at his will to hew or spare ; and this portion, being equal to the necessities of each, no room exists for a desire of transgressing on a neighbour's farm. Billet wood and faggots, being considered of no value, any one is suffered to take whence he pleases.

The fishery is another object of industry, by which a great number of the inhabitants are benefited, and the whole population in a great measure supported. This it is which renders the naked and unproductive rocks of the western coast at all habitable. This enables the individuals on these shores to live, in measure, at their ease, and affords them comforts to which those are strangers who reside in the interior. The quantity of fish on the coast is incredible, immense shoals resorting to every creek, and passage of the numerous islands, and rocks, by which the coast is defended. Some, indeed, keep at more distance from the shore than formerly, and have superinduced the necessity in taking them of a larger outfit ; more hands, nets of superior size, as well as vessels of greater burthen, being necessary ; whence many fishers, who in small boats used to adventure on their own bottom, precluded by the expence from continuing to do so, work in the vessels of those more wealthy than themselves. Complaints even exist of the quantity of fish upon the coast being less than formerly ; but this is possibly unfounded ; when so many more hands are employed now than



used to be, less, from the same number, must consequently fall to the lot of each.

On the shores of Norland and Finmark the inhabitants subsist more particularly on fish, the green patches, found in southern latitudes, being here unfrequent, and cows less common; the mountains which skirt the country being so little distant from the shore, that their bases, in many parts, terminate with the beach itself, are intersected by the numerous creeks on which the habitations of the fishermen are constructed, and, from their bleakness, afford little pasture. Here the fishery and fabrication of their different necessities make up the unique employ of the population. Whales in this quarter are reputed so numerous, that a voyage is seldom made from Hammerfest to the North Cape, without perceiving eight or ten. Here these bulky animals are often driven on shore, pursued by the sword-fish, and others, their perpetual enemies. The springer, a fish about three yards long, called so from its frequently leaping out of the water, the grampus, and porpoises are also common off this coast. The sea which bathes these shores is likewise the domain of the fabulous kraken. That such an animal ever existed is now wholly discredited, in spite of the traditions of the natives, or relations of former travellers and geographers; such accounts deservedly ranking with those of the faculty of the Laplanders to dispose of the winds, or that of the Malstrom to involve ships and bellowing whales.

CHRISTIANIA, the capital of Norway, is delightfully situated in the province of that name in the south, in a fertile country at the extremity of a deep arm of the sea, which stretches twelve Norwegian

miles in land, and is navigable for the largest ships. Through the city a small river has its course, and empties itself into the bay. The city covers a considerable space of ground, and has 10,000 inhabitants. It possesses a public school, highly celebrated, and esteemed the first in Norway. There is likewise a bank here. The bay contains a great number of islands full of mountains and rocks, which rise from the water in the most romantic and beautiful forms, and nothing can be conceived more charming than the varied prospect of the surrounding country, as seen from the ramparts of the fortress. This is situated on a promontory close to the sea, and is sufficiently elevated to command the adjacent country as well as the harbour. The old city of Apsloe, as appears from the ruins of the cathedral still preceptible, was built at the opposite side of the creek, on the spot now called the *Altstadt*, or old town. It has been abandoned by most of its inhabitants since the growth of Christiania, a few houses and the bishop's palace alone now remaining. The trade of Christiania is very considerable, and the saw mills on its river are numerous. These are supplied with timber not only by means of the stream which flows through it, and which has a course of seven Norwegian miles, but likewise receives a very considerable quantity of deals from the Glommen, by way of Fredericstadt. It was founded by Christian IV. in 1624, on Apsloe being consumed by fire. The deals of this place are shipped wholly to England, and are of the first quality, in number annually upwards of 700,000. It is a place also of considerable import, particularly of corn, with which it supplies all the adjacent country,

Bergen, formerly Biorginn, the capital of the province of the same name, a bishop's see, and the next city in point of dignity, and the largest and most commercial of any in Norway, lays at the bottom of an extensive and beautiful gulf, surrounded on all sides by lofty rocks, which rise to a prodigious height at the back of the city, and are so rugged and steep as to make impracticable all communication with the land. Owing to this circumstance, it rains almost incessantly, and in consequence, a woman is never seen in the streets without a hooded cloak of black cloth, nor a man without his safeguard against the weather. Bergen is a city of ancient standing, having been founded in 1070, but built principally of wood, it has frequently become the prey of the flames. In a conflagration which happened in 1248, eleven churches, and almost the whole town were destroyed; like misfortunes occurred in 1472, 1623, 1640, 1702, and 1756. On the latter occasion 1600 houses were destroyed. The streets are large, yet, from the rocky site of the town, they are crooked and uneven; they are paved with large and small stones, and are remarkably clean. The houses rebuilt after the last fire, are still of wood, and from being painted of varied colours, have a pretty effect; internally they are remarkably convenient, and as clean as those of the Dutch: the number of them is upwards of 3,000, and the population about 20,000. The city formerly possessed the privilege of coining, which it retained until 1575. The safe entrance of the road of Bergen, the depth, the excellence, and security of its harbour, were the motives for the first establishment made in this position, so central, for the fishery and merchant

ships. Its foundation, or at least its increase to any considerable size, is attributable to the different Hanse Towns, the merchants of which established counting houses here, and warehouses for the storing of fish, and nearly sixty remain on the quays of solid construction, which formerly belonged to them. Those merchants had a distinct jurisdiction, and gaining great wealth assumed a consequence above the native burghers, who, by their monopoly were excluded from trade. The complaints of the citizens and the evidence constantly before their eyes, at length engaged Walkendorf, the governor of the city, at the beginning of the 16th century, to set bounds to their arrogance. For this purpose he built the round tower in the harbour which yet remains, and commands the stores, and by degrees they were laid under so many restraints that the warehouses in successive years were abandoned to Norwegians; so that no trace of the Hanse Town merchants now remains, except the German chapel. Besides this chapel, Bergen, which formerly contained thirty churches and convents, has now three others, which are of stone, as are the houses of the consuls and principal inhabitants. The most remarkable building is the custom-house at the entrance of the port. There are here several schools: the *Seminarium Fredericanum*, founded by Vice Chancellor Pontoppidan, at which the Latin, French, English, and German languages are taught, natural history, mathematics, and literary history; a marine academy; and a town school, to which a small cabinet of natural curiosities and a library was attached by Councillor Bohalt, a master of the school. St. George's hospital here usually

contains a number of persons subject to that description of leprosy called the *spedalskhed*. Besides this, there is a town infirmary, built in 1779.

The prosperity of Bergen is derived from its being a factory, which the different fishermen from the extremity of Norland and even from Finmark, resort to dispose of their fish, and purchase corn; the trade of Bergen being more considerable than that of Drontheim, and its warehouses better supplied with grain. The vessels which annually arrive at this port laden with salt, grain, flour, brandy, and other commodities, are upwards of a thousand, many of which belong to the burghers of the city, who, in time of peace export numerous cargoes of fish to Portugal, Spain, the Baltic, and the Mediterranean.

The fortifications of Bergen towards the sea are of little consequence. It has a garrison, composed of one battalion of regulars, a free company of one hundred and fifty men, and a small detachment of artillery; in the whole about 600 men.

Drontheim, about 260 miles N. E. of Bergen, is the capital of the province of the same name, a bishop's see, and the head-quarters of four regiments, chiefly dispersed about the country. It is a place of considerable trade in copper, of which upwards of 600 tons from the mines of Roraas are annually exported; in deals, floated to it by means of the creek on which it lays, the Gulla, the Nid, which anciently gave name to the town (Nidaros) and various other rivers; these deals are of inferior quality to those from Christiania, and are shipped principally for Ireland, Scotland, and the North of England; and to the two former articles of trade is

to be added that in fish, which is great, a large number of owners of fishing smacks residing here. For some years until lately, the chief of the freightage from this city was effected in Dutch and English bottoms; at present the inhabitants own a fair proportion of the vessels employed. This city, forty miles from the sea, lays in a small plain on one of the largest friths of any in Norway, deep, and perfectly safe, but somewhat impeded at its entrance by a bar of rocks, impassable for large vessels at low water. It is extensive, well built, with broad streets but badly paved. Among the three churches is the Domkirch, a master-piece of ancient architecture, which, notwithstanding the injury it hath received from various conflagrations, still exhibits in the remains of its ancient cross, a specimen of the taste and costliness of its former ornaments.

The city is defended by a wall lately built, but its value is inconsiderable, as it is commanded by eminences in the neighbourhood; besides this, it has two fortresses without the walls, one on a small eminence called Christianstein, the other built on a rock in the harbour about a cannon shot from shore, called Munkholm: the latter a place of confinement for state prisoners.

No city of similar dimensions, perhaps can boast of such large funds for charitable purposes, the collective endowments considerably exceeding a million of rix dollars. That these good intentions are beneficial is not however clear, as the number of poor are constantly found equal to the means of relief. Those in indigent circumstances being ever ready to subsist without labour where the misplaced charity of the rich will enable them to do so.

There is here a Royal Society of learned men, which has been of much service to literature and science, particularly natural history. It was established by Bishop Gunner, in the middle of the last century. Besides several public schools, one in particular is founded for instruction of Laplanders.

Christiansand, the capital of the province, and a diocese, is situated in the southern part of Norway, about 150 miles S. W. of Christiania upon the sea. Its trade consists principally of deals and iron, either manufactured or in bars, from the mines of Arandahl, and others which lay between this city and Tonsberg. It is the smallest of any of the capitals of the provinces, and least considerable in point of population and commerce. Between this city and Dram there are a number of villages, or parishes, the inhabitants of which are employed in felling trees and in the mines, the wood and the ore from which labour are forwarded to Christiania and Dram, or Christiansand, indifferently, as most conveniently.

On leaving Sweden, after crossing an inlet of the sea called the Swinesund, the first town in Norway, upon its banks, is Fredericshall, ten Norwegian miles S. by E. of Christiania, in the province of that name. It is pleasantly situated among the rocks on the creek, at the influx of the river 'Tistedal, at the foot of a mountain, on which is the celebrated fortress properly called Fredericstein. The town is a straggling place, large, contains a number of good houses, and is open, neat, and clean. On one and the other side of the river are between 50 and 60 saw-mills, each of which annually cut from 10 to 12,000 deals. Its trade is fish, particularly salmon,

employs about 800 men, and a considerable contraband trade is carried on with Sweden: these various employments contribute much to the prosperity of the town which is of great respectability.

The town is not walled, its only defence being its out-posts, the fortress of Fredericstein, and the castles of Guldenlowe and Oberberg which command it.

The port has received great injury from the quantity of saw dust which has accumulated from the mills, vessels which used to come up to the bridge being obliged now to unload below the town. It has no manufactory, a sugar refinery only excepted. Fredericstadt is three Norwegian miles N. W. of Fredericshall: it is situated at the mouth of the broad river Glommen. This town is the principal frontier defence of Norway, in conjunction with Kongsvinger. Here are six companies in garrison, the arsenal and magazines. Its outworks are numerous, and its position on the river contributes greatly to its defence. It has several ships belonging to it, and carries on a considerable trade in deals with England.

Kongsvinger, the other frontier fortress is small, situated on a hill and of great strength, the place of the same name is an insignificant hamlet. The citadel commands a most beautiful prospect. Moss, two Norwegian miles from Frederickstadt, in a N. W. direction, is a considerable trading town on a wide arm of the sea, into which a small river empties its waters. It is remarkable for its neatness, and general air of opulence: the creek on which it lays is navigable for large vessels, and its harbour is excellent and safe. On the river, which by various bran-



ches floats up a quantity of timber, are many saw-mills, at least thirty, lying immediately at its mouth. The mills are uniformly of the same construction, working each one saw, with iron chains, for dragging forward the beam to be sawn, and cramps to make it slip after the stroke. Here are the most extensive iron works in Norway, at which all descriptions of iron work are cast, such as grates, pots, grape shot, &c. &c. Four Norwegian miles from Moss, in a S. W. direction, on the other side of the inlet of the sea on which Christiania lies, and seven miles S. of the latter place is Tonsburg, situated in a fruitful and pleasant country. The town is not large, but the oldest in Norway: it has two churches, and about 2000 inhabitants. The great increase of Christiania and Dram at the bottom of the firth have much detracted from the prosperity of this place. Its present means of support are derived from a tolerable brisk trade with the neighbouring country, which is populous, and an inconsiderable traffic in deals. One Norwegian mile from Tonsburg, are the salt works of Walloe. At a quarter of a mile from it is the seat of the Earl of Yarlsberg; and four miles from it in a western direction on the sea is the town of Larwig, capital of the other earldom of the same name, making with that of Yarlsberg, the only two in Norway. The town of Larwig is of moderate size, contains from 3 to 400 houses, and 2000 inhabitants; the houses not adjoining in rows but separated by the rockiness of the spot on which the town is raised. The town carries on a brisk trade in deals, and is enlivened by the large iron works belonging to the earl. The Larwig iron is considered the best in Norway.

About seven miles N. of Tonsberg is Eichfors, a small village, at which is a forge, in a most romantic situation between rocks in a small valley; on one side of it lays the Ecker, and on the other the Bergswasser, two fresh water lakes, the latter an accumulation of water from the upper ground above the place, serves to work the machinery of the iron works, which are of some magnitude, furnishing annually 2000 schippunds. Here is also a steel furnace. At a short distance from the Dram, and four and a half Norwegian miles from Eichfors lies Konsberg, the most considerable mine town in the North. The town covers a large space of ground, and contains upwards of 10,000 inhabitants, wholly maintained by the silver mines. It is the residence of a Bergampt. Little ground about the town is in a state of cultivation, more owing to want of soil than its elevation, which is not considerable; its quantity is however increased by the industry of its inhabitants, who, by heaping earth gathered from among the rocks, have succeeded in making a number of artificial pastures and fields, which, from the toil they require, and their scarcity, are consequently very dear. The town is situated on both sides of the river Lowe, which runs through its middle, and in its neighbourhood has a number of falls: it serves, notwithstanding, to float down the wood necessary for the works, and fortunately communicates with several small streams. Here is a seminary for the improvement of the miners in mineralogy, founded in 1757, by Dr. Becker, who likewise gave lectures on chemistry, which have been continued. The country, from Konsberg to Dram, is populous and contains the petty towns of Hacksund and Westforsen, and the roads are conti-

nually covered by carriages with merchandise, particularly corn from Dram to Kongsberg. The river Dram, in this vicinity, is skirted by beautiful and fertile meads; and the number of saw-mills is so considerable (44 in number), as to cut annually 535,000 deals. There is also in the river a salmon fishery in the neighbourhood of Eger. Dram is situated one and a half Norwegian miles from Eger, and three and a half from Kongsberg. The town, known under the general name of Dram, is situated in a pleasant wide spreading valley, on the banks of the river of the same name, one of the handsomest as well as most considerable in Norway; and notwithstanding it be two Norwegian miles from the arm of the sea, into which it falls in high-water, the river is not only brackish but salt. It consists of three distinct towns, that is to say, Bragnäs, Strmsø, and Tanger. The last is the port, and the whole three towns are well built, the houses large and handsome, mostly fronting the river. Dram is a place of very considerable trade. The deals and iron shipped from it amount to a prodigious sum; and its articles of import are numerous, particularly corn. This collective commerce occupies, with the mariners belonging to the town, a population of upwards of 6000 inhabitants; and the streets exhibit a bustle and activity such as, except at Bergen in the fishing season, is not equalled in any other town of Norway. Having thus enumerated the principal places of note in the Government of Christiania, it remains to take an ambit through the remaining provinces.

Excepting Stavanger, the province of Christiansand comprises no town of note. This town is populous, and its whole district is the most tempe-

rate, fertile, and well inhabited of any in Norway; the commerce of its port consists of deals, tallow, hides, and goatskins. Arandahl, in the neighbourhood of which the numerous pits are dug whence the fine ore is extracted which bears its name, is a small place, situated in a valley, and supported by the occupation afforded its inhabitants in transporting the ore from the mines to the ships.

The province of Bergen comprises, except itself, not one city or town of any note: but on the coast and firths a considerable number of straggling villages. In this province are several marble quarries. It extends two hundred miles along the coast, by a depth of about seventy, bordering on the province of Christiania on the east, that of Christiansand on the south, and that of Drontheim on the north.

The province of Drontheim with which the Nordenfialls begin, the three others in the south being known by the denomination of Sudenfialls, extends from half a Norwegian mile south of Roraas, and from Otte Island on the western coast inclusive, to the most northern extremity of Norway, and includes Nordland and Finmark. The only towns in this province of any celebrity are, the mine town of Roraas, about 15 Norwegian miles nearly south of that city, and Christiansund, upon the western coast, about seventy miles west of Drontheim. Roraas is a large town, containing about 3000 inhabitants, situated on the highest ground of any town of proportionate size in Europe, and in consequence of the extreme elevation, computedly upwards of 3000 feet above the level of the sea, and its northern situation is uncommonly bleak, cold, and raw. The support of the town and neighbourhood

is wholly derived from the copper mines, in the works here and in the villages about, at Folden upon the Glommen, and Dragaas upon the Gull-elven, or river Gulla; the first  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , the latter 4 Norwegian miles from the mine. It has been found requisite to establish the works at this distance, owing to the scarcity of wood. The several works dispatch about 600 tons of copper for sale to Drontheim, which in summer is transported on horseback over a tolerably good wooden road, and in winter on sledges over the snow. Christiansund, in 1734, was made a city, by a charter granted by Christian VI; previously it contained but a few straggling houses, the inhabitants of which supported themselves by fishing. It is now become a city of great opulence, which shares with the inhabitants of Bergen in the neighbouring and Nordland trade. An English, or rather a Scotch company, established here, laid the foundation of its prosperity; and, on the dissolution of the company, several of the individuals opened houses of commerce, whose example was followed by many natives and Danes, as well as foreigners; so that a spirit of competition has arisen between the merchants of Bergen and the new settlers, which has proved of advantage to the fishery on the coast. Christiansund, as well as Bergen, possessing the advantage of an excellent harbour and storehouses, full of grain and other requisites to supply the neighbouring islands, and the inhabitants farther towards the north, particularly the Nordlanders, who by stopping here, save upwards of 200 miles in their voyage out and home. It exports a small but inconsiderable number of inferior deals. The city is built upon four rocks, three of which are insulated, the fourth

joined to the continent ; its situation is altogether as disagreeable as singular ; the latter projection forms its extensive and beautiful harbour, which is nearly round. From the peculiar distribution of its houses, almost all communication is effected by water. As well as the fish trade, the fishery carried on here is of magnitude. Neither in Nordland nor in Finmark is there any collection of houses deserving the name of a town, the straggling population in either district being widely dispersed.

The Norwegians are fair complexioned, with blooming countenances and light hair ; they are rather above the middle size, and though sturdy, uninclined to corpulency. The men are of highly engaging appearance, and the women frequently handsome. Their mode of living, and the different customs which they yet preserve, have great affinity to those of the ancient Anglo Saxons. Every peasant in Norway is his own artisan : residing in many instances at considerable distance from any towns or marts, whence he could be supplied, necessity has made of each a cobbler, taylor, builder, and a general contriver for all articles which he may want.

The people, in general, are free from all vassalage, and possess with an independent spirit, that courage which results from a sense of the dignity of man. In the great towns upon the coast, such as Christiania, Stavanger, Christiansand, Christiansund, Bergen, and Drontheim, from the great intercourse of the inhabitants with that nation, the mode of living among the shipowners and the merchants partakes much of that of the English ; while the common people, from the facility by which a subsistence is

attained, either as a sailor, a fisherman, in the iron or salt works, or in the transport or sawing of timber ; and from the plenteous store of corn in the different ports, live much at their ease. Different is the case of those who inhabit Finmark, Nordland, and the mountainous country about Roraas. In these parts, owing to the Price of grain being much enhanced by the charge of carriage, corn is sold at an extravagant rate, and seldom is the portion, of the lower orders at least, without adulteration. Cattle are every where frequent, no spot which produces sufficient fodder for the maintenance of a cow being without one, and the milk, cheese, butter and whey obtained from this useful animal go far towards the support of almost every family. Meat is little eaten. Potatoes are cultivated, but are scarce; fish, however, is fortunately met with in great abundance, and is dispersed over all the country from the coast at a very moderate rate. The chief drink of the people is water mixed with syra, a beverage prepared from sour whey. Wine is almost unknown among them ; little beer is made, unless in towns, and from spirits, (in which they are far from resembling the Swedes) they are even too abstemious, since a moderate use of them is in Norway a requisite, to correct the evil consequences apt to arise from their living so much on fat fish.

The Norwegians are devout, frank, open, and cordial, addicted to mirth, and partial to dancing, singing, and rural amusements. Their common mode of salutation is by shaking hands, and their token of warmest approbation at any thing which passes, a cordial squeeze.

In Norway the peasants breathe the air of freedom

except those of a few noble estates near Frederickstadt, contrary to the peasant's of Denmark, those of Norway are spirited, frank, open, and undaunted, but not insolent: in the comforts of life they seem to yield to none, except some of the Swiss: their usual dress is of a stone colour, with red button holes, and white metal buttons: and the women often appear only dressed in a petticoat and shift, with a close collar round their throat, and a black sash tied round the waist, their linen is remarkably fine, and as they are usually well made, this mode of dress sets off their shapes to the highest advantage: these peasants are well clothed and comfortably lodged; they weave their ordinary cloth and linen; they make also a kind of stuff like a Scotch plaid, their principal mode of salute is by offering the hand, and when they receive a pecuniary reward, or are paid, even a trifle, instead of returning thanks by words, or a bow, the Norwegian peasants shake the hand with frankness and cordiality. From amongst this worthy and independent class of society, we have grouped a male and female for our Costume of Norway, in which, true to native simplicity, will be found their dress, correspondent to the above description, and in whose countenances the physiognomist will trace, minds at ease, satisfied with their humble treasure, conscious rectitude, content and peace. As a luxury, they eat thin slices of meat sprinkled with salt, and dried in the wind, like hung beef, also a soup made like hasty-pudding, adding oatmeal, and, in order to render it more palatable, they put in a pickled herring, or salted mackarel; their usual bread, like that of the Scottish peasantry, consists of flat cakes of oatmeal, which in times of great scarcity is mingled





*Norwegian Peasants*



with the white inner rind of trees. The ancient Norwegians were said to be a very brave and powerful people, and the hardiest seamen in the world; they were frequently confounded with the Danes in their incursions; from their being once the most turbulent, they are considered now as the most loyal subjects in Europe. Since the union of Calmar, in 1387, which united Norway to Denmark, this people have been governed by a Danish Viceroy.

The laws of Norway are similar to those of Denmark. The Norwegians have yet an advantage over their fellow-subjects in possessing liberty, which although many of the serfs in Denmark have of late years been freed from their vassalage, is not there generally the case. The Norwegians, moreover, have a right peculiar to themselves of ancient standing, by which the property of the individual is secured to his direct lineal descendants. The law that establishes this right is called the *Odelsrecht*. By this law any one who can prove himself to be descended in a direct line from the former possessor of any property, may re-enter upon it on returning the purchase-money to the stranger in possession. That he forfeit not this right, he must, however, every tenth year, certify before a tribunal that he is prevented from disengaging his property by want of money alone, and that he still reserves his right of redemption. From this privilege having been found to interrupt the improvement of estates, and its frequently occasioning litigation, it was enacted by royal ordinance, about the middle of last century that the right of redemption should expire after twenty years from the period of alienation.

The dwellings of the Norwegians are constructed

of blocks joined to each other, with the crevices filled with moss: the roof is covered with deal planks overlaid with the bark of the birch tree, which effectually preserves it from the weather and keeps the habitation dry. The construction of their dwellings is neat, and the interior cleanly and well planned.

The roads of Norway are few, they consist chiefly of one great road from Christiania to Roraas, another to Kongsberg, a third from Christiania, to Drontheim, and a cross-road from Drontheim to Roraas. The facility afforded of communication by water, and the difficulty of connecting the towns upon the coast by land, from the numerous creeks, lakes, and broad inlets of the sea, are the cause of their scarcity. But even these few roads, principally formed of beams of wood, laid transversely over each other, and covered with earth, occasion an amazing waste of timber. The roads in the winter being concealed by snow of a considerable depth, wheel carriages are no longer used, but sledges, and to denote the way high poles are raised at short distances from each other.

The coast of Norway is subject, in winter, to terrible storms, and the violence of the wind in summer is such, occasionally, as to subject to great peril the navigation of the Nordland coast to Bergen, which is confined of necessity to this season of the year. In the autumn and winter are frequent thick fogs.

Western and southern gales are prevalent in the summer months of the year, the east and north winds are most common in winter, of which the east from passing over so great an extent of country covered

with ice and snow, is by much the coldest, the north at least in Finmark and Nordland, from blowing over the ocean occasionally covered with vapour, is somewhat more tolerable to man.

Off the coast of Nordland is a whirlpool called Malstrom, which fabulous writers have described as of such power as to draw into its vortex boats, ships, and even great whales. This whirlpool, so much magnified, except in bad weather, is fearlessly approached by boats, and at no time is dangerous to ships.

Thunder and storms are not very common in Norway, owing possibly to the extremely gradual slope of its mountains, yet from the numerous rocks there are frequent whirlwinds, and gusts of wind. Earthquakes have rarely been felt.

The coast of Norway is so much indented by creeks and inlets of the sea, that the distance from one to the other is very inconsiderable. Some of these stretch far into the country, and are of surprising depth; all of them are navigable, and many capable of receiving and affording secure shelter to the largest vessels of war, nay, even to the greatest fleets. From this circumstance and their remaining perpetually clear of ice, 'it seems as if Providence had delighted in affording, there where the sea is most tempestuous, the safest and most numerous places of shelter from its violence.

The face of the southern part of Norway, in common with that of Sweden, affords strong reason for believing that at some period antecedent to tradition it was covered by the sea. Its naked rocks hanging, uneven, abrupt, full of chasms and cliffs, with their abraded side, exhibit evident traces of the

action of the waves, and in every respect resemble those at present under water. The small vales between them answer to present bays; in these the slime and impurities floating in the sea appear to have subsided by degrees, until the deposit has become level with the surface, which gradually declining, the water at last has retreated and left the vales dry. Hence their even surface, with an uniform slope towards the sea; hence the consistence of the soil of slime, shells, and sand, all of which are marine productions. The openings or intervals appear to have been passages where currents ran in various directions, now with a continued, now an arrested course. In different parts of the rocks are large fissures, in others vestiges of such as have closed. These fissures have probably been occasioned by violent cold, as they cannot owe their origin to earthquakes, since in a country so little abounding in sulphur as Norway, materials for their establishment are wanting; and no concussion proceeding from a distant focus could have been strong enough to have split such amazing masses of rock.

The Norwegian coast presents one continued series of small and unimportant islands; among a few of them deserving notice are Karm, Bommel, Sartar and others, at the entrance of the gulph of Drontheim. Among the dreary isles on the laponic shore are found the Soroe, and Magerse, that of Wardhus in the Artic ocean, where there is a garrison; and that of Fiskeroe, part of which belongs to Russian Lapland. The Norwegian Isles are in general mountainous, like the corresponding coast, with precipitous rocks and a

deep sea washing their bases; between them are numerous narrow creeks overshadowed by vast heights, and guarded, as it were, by innumerable smaller isles, and desert rocks, the haunts of screaming sea fowl.

## ICELAND.

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**BUT** the Island which of all others is entitled to consideration, whether in point of magnitude, or the matchless phœnominæ it presents to the contemplative mind of the curious, or to the eye of the illiterate, is the extensive one of Iceland, where the elements in one or other part of it seem in a perpetual state of warfare, and strongly impress the mind with an idea of the chaotic state of the universe prior to Nature's great architect speaking matter into order, and impressing upon it laws which it invariably obeys.

Of its inhabitants, previous to the arrival of the Norwegians, all is uncertainty, or at best contradictory information. The best authorities say that, on the Norwegians landing, they found the country so overgrown with birch trees, that they were obliged to fell them in order to construct habitations; altho' they found certain little bells, crosses, and other symbols of the Romish religion, which indicate that christians had visited the Island before that time; and, indeed the book of Colonization mentions an intercourse between the inhabitants of the two Islands of Great Britain, and Iceland, and says, that the inhabitants abandoned



Iceland on account of the new comers being Pagans, leaving behind them Irish books, bells, crosses, &c.

Before we begin our general description thereof we shall remark that, its government appears to have been an Aristocratic republic for about 387 years, previous to its submitting to Norway in 1261. But with Norway, it became subject to the crown of Denmark, by which it has since been governed by a Lieutenant.

The present name of this island was given to it by one Floke, a Swede, on account of the large quantity of ice found on its north-western shores.

Iceland lies between  $63^{\circ} 20'$  and  $67^{\circ} 20'$  of north latitude, and  $15^{\circ} 30'$  and  $29^{\circ} 30'$  of longitude west of Greenwich. Its greatest length is about 880 British miles; its greatest breadth 230; and its superficial measurement about 67,500 square British miles.

The climate of this country is far from intemperate; the usual heat is not extreme, nor is the cold severe; the utmost known rise of the Mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer being  $104^{\circ}$ , and the winter cold rarely exceeding  $24^{\circ}$  or  $20^{\circ}$ , although, in some instances, the mercury has sunk to  $12^{\circ}$ , and even into the bowl. The greatest cold prevails in January, February, and March. The cold of winter is of long continuance, and the summer heat so variable, that, even in the month of June, water has been noticed to freeze in a single night, although the thermometer on the previous day stood at  $70^{\circ}$ .

Thunder is rarely heard in this country, but most often in winter, and in the neighbourhood of volca-

noes. The northern lights appear in Iceland in all the different quarters of the compass, especially on the south horizon, where a dusky segment is distinguished, whence proceed large columns of vivid light, frequently tinged with yellow, green, or purple hues: they are most common in dry weather. The atmosphere appears sometimes red and loaded with flame, while, at others, ignited globes and trains of fire, bearing similitude to comets, dart backwards and forwards in the air, through a great extent. Earthquakes are very common, and are constantly precursors of volcanic eruptions. Of these in September, 1755, fifteen shocks were felt in the course of a few days; and seldom does it happen that the whole island is exempt, for any considerable length of time, from these ominous concussions.

In Iceland there are numerous volcanoes, which are continually in fermentation, as is exemplified by the heat of the soil in many places.

On any volcanic eruption, for twenty or thirty miles from its focus, the fields are usually strewed with ashes, in some places for a yard in depth, and the herbage in course is destroyed; violent earthquakes, excited by the internal commotions which precede the discharge, rend mountains, and overturn or overwhelm farms and habitations with their owners and cattle; dissolved by the apperient fire, the immense glaciers at once pour forth their torrents, and inundate the plains, carrying away with them not only the flocks and herds, but also the ground and herbage on which they grazed.

But among all curious exhibitions which nature presents to the admiration of the world, nothing elsewhere certainly can be compared to the hot

spouting water springs with which this country abounds. They are of unequal degrees of heat. From some the water flows gently as from other springs, and is then called *laug* or a bath; from others it spouts boiling, with great noise, and is then called *huer* or *kittel*, the kettle or cauldron; but notwithstanding the degree of heat is various, it has not been noticed in any instance to be lower than 188°. of Fahrenheit.

Met with in every part of the island, there are some of these springs which bear the name of *Geyser*, the most remarkable of which is at a short distance from Skallholt, two days journey from *Heckla* near a farm celled *Hawkadal*. Its situation is in the midst of an exquisite landskip. Placed in a large field, you see on one side, at a great distance, high mountains covered with ice, the sharp unequal points of whose summits appear to rest upon the clouds, which float in the air beneath them: on the other side, *Heckla* is visible, with its three points, covered with ice, rising above the clouds, and with the smoke which ascends from it, forming clouds of vapour above those more dense below them; in another quarter is a ridge of high rocks, at the foot of which boiling water occasionally gushes forth; and farther on extends a marsh, of about half a mile in circumference, where are forty or fifty boiling springs, from which a vapour rises to a prodigious height.

In the middle of these is the principal spring *geyser*. The traveller visiting it, at about a quarter of a mile from the *huer*, while yet separated by a ridge of rocks, hears a loud roaring noise like the rushing of a torrent precipitated from stupendous

rocks, and upon enquiry learns—it is the geyser roaring.

If this country, the theatre of the contending elements, affords no pleasing prospect to the eye of the traveller, it yet presents him with a spectacle at once grand and awful, and makes up, by the sublimity of the conceptions to which it gives birth, for its deficiency of those scenes, common in other countries, which spread a calm around them, and fill the mind with placid joy. Ridges of mountains, of various elevation, cross it in every direction, without maintaining any regular course; that, if ever it existed, having been destroyed by the dreadful convulsions, to which the whole country appears at intervals, to have been subject. Among these mountains many are of such height as to be continually surcharged with ice and snow; these are here denominated *Jökul*; between these protuberances nothing is seen but barren fields of considerable extent, covered with lava for the space of many miles; and occasional lakes, rivers, and steaming springs. The coasts indeed offer some relief to the eye. Here at different short intervals are numerous farms, and in some instances perhaps a dozen contiguous, but not a town, not a village is there on the whole island, and not even a single tree; the utmost effort of nature failing in this melancholy country to produce vegetation of greater size than a shrub.

The direction of the mountains of Iceland, as before observed, is uncertain; for, if they ever were continued in a chain, it has been so much broken by different convulsions, and so many new elevations have been formed by successive eruptions of lava, as to prevent the possibility of its being traced.

The western district is full of high mountains. The *Thyril*, or Whirl-about, is a mountain of this division which has a round and very high peak, and is exceedingly steep towards the sea; its form occasions spiral currents of air, whence its name originates: it consists of horizontal strata; its height is 1,800 feet. The other mountains of this district are of the altitude of from 4 to 5,000 feet. The glacier of Geitland, the highest in the island, is an immense irregular accumulation of ice in this division, upwards of 1,000 fathoms in height: that of Sneefjalls was ascertained by Povelsen to be 6,860 feet. On the summit, above the ice, is a file of burnt rocks, of inconsiderable elevation, and upon the ice and snow are singular accumulations of sand, of a regular conical shape, from four to sixteen feet in height, at a few paces from each other; the interior of them consists of ice.

But of all the mountains, that which has excited most attention, owing to its numerous eruptions, is Mount Heckla, or, as it is called by the natives, *Hecklafjall*. It is situated four miles from the sea, on the southern coast, and is divided into three points at the top; the highest is that in the middle, which, according to minute observation by Ramsden's barometer, is 5,000 feet higher than the sea. From *Bessestedr*, famous for having been the dwelling-place of the celebrated Sturleson, the road to this mountain is over an uninterrupted track of lava, from 50 to 60 British miles in length. Of this mountain the most inconsiderable part consists of lava, the rest of ashes and hard solid stones, thrown from the craters, together with some pumice-stones and a little native sulphur. Among its numerous

openings, four are peculiarly remarkable; of the first, the lava has taken the form of chimney-stacks half broken down; from another water has been expelled; in a third, all the stones are red; and from the fourth, the lava seems to have burst forth in a stream, which afterwards has divided into three branches. The first opening, whence the fire has burst, is a place surrounded by lofty glazed walls, and filled with high vitrified rocks; beyond this is a great quantity of grit and stones, and higher up, the second opening, of no great depth, exhibits marks of having been the issue of boiling water. Above, the mountains begin to be covered with snow, with the exceptions of a few spots, which continue bare, a consequence of the vapours exhaled from the mountain in this part.

Notwithstanding it appears evident from the roots of trees which are dug up continually in every quarter of the island, from the magnitude of the beams and rafters of which the ancient houses are constructed, and the testimony of the annals of the country, that woods of large timber once flourished in this island; and notwithstanding the climate is far from being so cold in the winter as many parts of Norway, in which forests abound, and cannot be considered the prevention of the growth of trees, Iceland at present produces none deserving of the name. The birch in this country attains no greater height than ten or twelve feet, nor more than three or four inches of diameter: this, with the dwarf birch, willows of five different species, the service tree, and a species which bears no fruit, make up the whole variety of the plantations of Iceland. The fir and pine have been planted in vain, dying after

they have grown to the height of two or three feet. The whortle-berry, the *arbutus uva ursi*, the barberry, and the black thorn, are productions of the country.

In a few gardens coleworts are cultivated, and savoys, which, however, seldom cabbage: these, with red and white cabbage, radishes, turnips, and common small salad, make up the whole of their horticultural productions.

Herbage of various kinds abound in their fields, which are variegated by the orchis with white flowers, the wild geranium with petals of azure blue, and small red veins at the edge of the leaves. The Alpine poppy shews itself here with greater pride from the absence of competitors, and the honeysuckle pleases by its fragrance. Sorrel abounds, is eaten in salads, and serves to make a beverage, mixed either with water or milk. The blackberry heath is likewise very abundant here, the juice of whose berries, according to Boerhaave, is capable of being made into wine.

Among the domestic animals of this country are reckoned the horse, which is of small stature. Horned cattle is abundant, as are sheep and goats; hogs are less numerous. Of wild quadrupeds the number is few; it is confined to foxes, which are very destructive to lambs, for the extirpation of which at a particular season, in various parts, the inhabitants are summoned: the bear, which occasionally pays this island a visit from Greenland; mice, some of which are white; and a few rein-deer, of recent importation, which succeed very well.

Of domestic poultry the inhabitants have none, most probably from the want of corn, with which to

feed them. But, if deficient of quadrupeds, this country is not destitute of birds. Eagles in abundance are found here, particularly the golden eagle, and three kinds of falcons. The quantity of water fowl of all descriptions is prodigious; ducks, geese, and swans: the latter in winter nights are said to sing delightfully. The eyder-duck is among the water fowl common on the coast. Besides these birds, ptarmigans abound here, gulls, sea swallows, peterels, woodcocks, snipes, plovers, likewise a singular species of lapwing (*sterna alba*), the Greenland pigeon, finches, and sparrows. The larger heron is a bird of passage, which is sometimes seen.

In fish the sea abounds, yet not in an equal degree with more favoured countries, and many of the lakes and rivers produce salmon of numerous kinds, trout, carp, and eels; the latter of which, considered by the people to bear affinity to the serpent, is not eaten. The sea fish are the whale, of which numerous species resort to the neighbourhood and friths of this island. Of the largest species (the Greenland whale,) the male of which is 240 feet in length, very few are now seen, they having been either destroyed or driven more to the north by the repeated pursuits of the Dutch and French in the last and previous century. Those which frequent Hualfiord, and the gulfs on the western side, are of much smaller size, and are driven by the fishermen on shore; such are the *balena media*, with a wrinkled belly, from 30 to 40 feet long, and the *andarnafia*, or beaked whale, so called by the Icelanders from the resemblance which the fore part of its head bears to a duck's beak: this species seldom exceeds 30 feet in length. These two furnish whale-bone, and have no teeth:



their flesh is eaten by the natives. Beside these, the springer, dolphins, and porpoises of numerous kinds, are frequently harpooned, as are also different species of sharks. The star fish and the *hauder* are taken for the sake of their oil, which is peculiarly excellent. Soles, flounders, and other *pleuronectes*, are common, and various sorts of edible shell fish.

The lakes and rivers of Iceland are numerous, some of them productive of fish, and others, from some cause unaccounted for, entirely destitute of any. In the southern division of the island, called *Sonn-lendiga Fiordonnd*, is the *Skorodals Vatn*, a lake of considerable extent at the bottom of a deep valley, in which are a few copses of dwarf birch, which the inhabitants term woods; this lake abounds in trout, and gives rise to the *Andakilsaa*, a river of considerable size. The *Hnitaa* is one of the largest rivers in this division, or in all Iceland, and is swelled by many tributary streams: it abounds in salmon, and is occasionally frozen in winter; but on such occasions, without any change of temperature in the atmosphere, it is frequently thawed suddenly by the heat of subterranean fires. In the spring, when its waters are swollen, it divides into two streams, one of which is lost in hidden channels beneath the earth, at three quarters of a Norwegian mile from its source, and re-appears at a mile distant near the other branch of this river, the banks of which are very high and steep. The *Huitaa* has three sources; the first the *Geitaa*, its water is white as milk: the second a small river which proceeds from the plains of *Arnarvatn*, whose water is limpid and of excellent quality; and the third is a large river called *Norlingafliort*, which flows from the northern part of the plain of

Arnarvatn. The rocks which form a case for the current of this river consist of black scorïæ, and are of very hard consistence. The length of its course is about 80 British miles. The *Thuer* is another large river whose course is of similar length and direction, nearly parallel to that of the *Huitaa*, with which it finally unites. This river is deep, and abounds likewise in trout and salmon. In the northern division there are innumerable lakes and an abundance of rivers, the chief of the latter is the *Blanda*; but of the former the most worthy of attention is that in the district of *Vadla*, in *Olafsfiord*. It is a fresh water lake, and rich in fish, but possesses the singularity of yielding cod, and other salt water fish, superior in quality to those taken at sea. These, however, are chiefly caught in the winter, when the inhabitants make holes in the ice, and catch them with the line: in summer, trout is the fish most common. This lake is divided from the sea merely by a bank formed of mud and sand. It is a Danish mile in extent, and doubtless once formed a part of the sea, whence it will have been separated by the violence of subterranean fire, and thus have inclosed the salt water fish. A river which empties itself into this lake, making its waters fresh by degrees, will have habituated its inhabitants gradually to their different element. In this quarter, likewise, is situated *Myvatn*, or the Lake of Gnats, so called from the myriads of these insects with which it is infested. This lake, and the country about it, ranks among the most remarkable spots in Iceland, as well from the subterranean fire which ranges beneath its whole extent, as the wonderful effects it has occasioned, and the singular circumstances under which it has appeared. In this

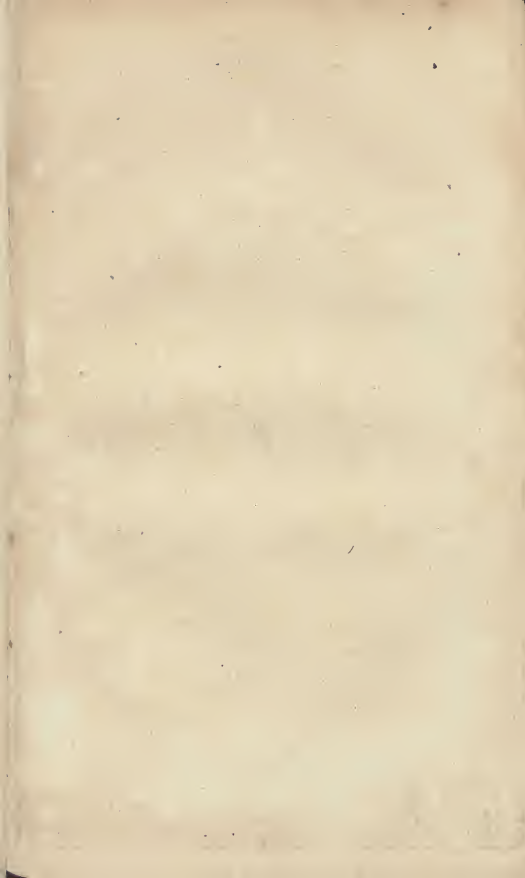
quarter nature seems to have exhausted all her powers. The lake is three Danish leagues in circumference, but has a number of angles, creeks, and sinuosities, occasioned by lava running into it from the different fiery eruptions which have taken place in its neighbourhood; and in it are a variety of small islands, covered with herbage and angelica, the resort of numerous wild fowl. The constant steam from the lake sufficiently shews the presence of those latent fires which prevent its freezing in the winter. In the eastern division were the rivers *Skapta* and *Holm*, but the former was engulfed in 1783, and its deep bed filled with the lava from the eruption in its vicinity. There are numerous other streams and lakes, but not of magnitude sufficient to merit description.

Iceland has a number of excellent bays in the various firths which penetrate far inland, have great depth of water, and afford secure shelter from every wind. Those resorted to by the vessels which frequent this sea for taking of whales and other fish, are *Brederfiord* or the gulph of *Bredervick*, *Patrisfiord*, and the others on the western shores. On the north the bay of *Direfiord* offers excellent anchorage, free from either gales of wind or squalls, to which latter some of the other bays are liable, being open to eddies from between the mountains. The bay of *Bolk Bogt*, although not usually frequented by the fishermen, below the house of the factor of the company, offers excellent anchorage. Seertsul bay is a safe roadsted.

The Icelanders are of the middle size and well made, but not strong. Far removed from general intercourse with the world, and destitute of the

wealth and luxury which corrupt the morals of other people, vices are less frequent here than in many other parts. These people are of benignant nature; at the same time so serious as scarcely ever to be seen to laugh. Although their poverty prevents the exercise of that hospitality for which their ancestors are famed, the will remains, and is shewn by the readiness with which they yield the little they possess, and the pleasure they express if their gift be well received. Would they signify particular affection on their visits, they kiss the mouth, the husband as well as the wife, and equally the son with the daughter; they are obliging, faithful, loyal, yet withal superstitious; that irradicable love of one's country which makes the Laplander and Samoiede prefer their ragged tent and wretched fare to the stove-warmed mansion and the plenteous board, exists in all its force in the inhabitant of Iceland, who rarely settles at Copenhagen, but, his business done, seeks again his native soil. The dress of the Icelanders has, in modern times, undergone but little alteration: neither elegant nor ornamental, it yet is neat, clean, and suitable to the climate. It consists, for the men, of a shirt next to the skin, with a short jacket and long breeches, which button over it. When on a journey, they wear a short coat over the jacket, the whole made of coarse black cloth, (wadmél) except in the district north of Agnarfiord, where white cloth is worn by the inhabitants. On the head they wear large three-cornered hats; and worsted stockings, and Icelandic shoes on their feet.

These are made in the following manner:—they cut a piece of square leather rather wider and longer





*Icelanders.*

than the foot, which they sew at the toes and behind the heel, and tie over the foot with leathern thongs: the leather they use is sometimes that from an ox's hide, but mostly sheep-skin.

The women also are always dressed in black *wadmel*: over their shifts, which are sewed up at the bosom, they wear a corset, and above this a jacket, laced before, with long narrow sleeves, which reach to the wrist: at the opening on the side of the wrist they have silver buttons. The jacket has a little black collar, about three inches broad, either of velvet or silk, and mostly trimmed with gold cord. The petticoat of *wadmel* reaches to the ankle; round the top it has a girdle of silver, or some other metal, from which a *wadmel* apron is suspended: over this they wear an upper dress, close at the neck and wrists, fitting the body, reaching almost as low as the petticoat, and adorned with a facing down to the bottom, resembling cut velvet. Their Head-dress consists of several cloths wrapped round the head; it is almost as high again as the length of the face, tied fast with a handkerchief, and is intended rather for warmth than ornament. Girls, before marriage, are not allowed to wear this head-dress. At their weddings, the bride is adorned in a singular manner: she wears close to the face, round her head-dress, a crown of silver, gilt; has two chains round her neck, one of which hangs down very low before, the other rests on her shoulders, while from a third chain a little heart is suspended, inclosing perfume. The dress described is common to women, the only difference between the wealthy and the poor is, that instead of *wadmel*, and brass ornaments, the former wear broad cloth, and ornaments of silver. What

bread is eaten by the Icelanders comes from Copenhagen, it consists chiefly of sour biscuit, but is so dear as to be used only on great occasions; flour is obtained, by drying it, from the lichen *Islandicus* (*fialgras*) and from *kornsyra* (*polygonum bistorta*) most excellent substitutes for grain: these, with sour butter, which the Icelanders regard as more wholesome than the butter commonly used by us; whey boiled to the consistence of sour milk, and *mis ort*, or sour cheese, and curds from which the whey is squeezed, and mixed with juniper berries; together with *syra*, and *blanda*, a liquor made of water, a twelfth part of syra, and the juice of thyme, or crow berries; fish of all kinds, fresh, dried, salted, and frozen; and the flesh of bears, sheep, and birds, partly salted, partly hung, or smoked, and partly preserved in casks with sour fermented whey poured over it; make up, with wild vegetables and a few cabbages and garden salad, the chief of the food of the Icelanders.

The women prepare the fish, take care of the cattle, manage the milk and wool, sew, spin, and seek eggs and down.

The occupations of the Icelanders during winter are the manufacture of wool, spinning, and knitting of stockings and waistcoats: these are commonly the province of the women; part of their time is likewise taken up in tending their flocks and herds, and clearing away snow that they may graze. In summer they fish, catch birds, and take their eggs, mow grass, dig turf, provide fuel, seek their stray sheep or goats, and kill their cattle. This also is the season of fulling their *wadmél*, for which purpose, as well as for washing and bleaching the cloth, in



lieu of soap and pot-ash, they use urine. They tan their leather also at this time. A few individuals are decently skilled in works of gold and silver, and some follow mechanics, in various branches of which several have become proficient.

Of an unlively disposition, the amusements of the Icelanders are chiefly sedentary. Wrestling, jumping, and other athletic sports, are little practised. Chess, draughts, lansquinet, and other games of cards, are their chief pastimes; but they never game for money, or any objects of value.

The maladies to which they are subject, are, on the sea-shore, colds, consumptions, contagious fevers, pleurisy, hypochondriac affections, and scurvy, which sometimes terminates in *elephantiasis*. In the interior they are not equally liable to these disorders but, on the other hand, are prone to diarrhœa, the gout, lowness of spirits, disorders of the spleen, the jaundice, and St. Anthony's fire.

The houses, in the southern division, are miserable huts, the abode of wretched fishermen. But in the interior, and on the other coasts, they are of better construction, although so small, as to leave scarce room for turning about in them. They are built with lava, their rafters are of birch, and the covering sods of turf. They have no floors nor chimneys, nor ever kindle a fire, except to cook by. The windows are made of the membranes of animals, in general; sometimes, but very seldom, they are glazed. The fronts are usually painted red, with bole, from the thermal springs. Besides the dwelling-house, each inhabitant has a sheep-pen, a cow-house, stables, and storehouses, adjoining it, inclosed in a ring fence.

Such inhabitants, as live near the coasts, employ

themselves through great part of the year in fishing, and such as live inland, at certain seasons, leave their homes for the sea-shore, with similar views. Each master has a peculiar fishing dress, made of sheep, or calf skins, which, in the process of manufacture, are repeatedly rubbed over with train oil. He is likewise obliged to furnish his servants with a similar one on putting out to sea. These dresses consist of *lestrabrukur*, pantaloons, which fit the foot and leg, come pretty high above the hips, and are laced on very tight; a wide jacket fastened round round the neck, and the middle of the waist; coarse fulled stockings, and water shoes of thick leather.

Their small boats hold but from one to four men, and do not venture far from shore; they have however, larger boats, provided with sails, which carry from 12 to 16 men.

Soon as the boat is off the shore, the fishermen all take off their hats and caps, pray for good success, and recommend themselves to divine protection by a prayer and hymn. As they take their fish, they cut off the heads, which they throw into the sea, together with the entrails, by which means they are not only enabled to carry a greater number of fish to shore, but draw many insects to the place which attract other fish.

There are no mines worked in Iceland, although vestiges remain of ancient forges in the district of Myrar, in the western quarter, and in several other parts of the island, which abound in iron ore, found in stones and rocks, as well as in the marshy earth, and in particles intimately blended with sand beneath the surface of the ground: in short, all the marshy parts of the island are rich in black martial

earth, which is much used by the inhabitants for dyeing their *nadmél*, as well as their other cloths, of a black colour. Brass stone, *lapillus pyritaceus colore æris*, is found in the bed of the *Kalmavick*, in the district of Akrancæ. This stone is small and glossy, sometimes of the colour of bell-metal, at others of that of tempered steel, or violets. It is very hard, and when rubbed yields a sulphureous smell. Native sulphur exists in no parts of the island where there are hot springs. Pyrites are chiefly found of a cubic form, seldom exceeding one or two lines in diameter; they are principally of the colour of brass, but some as red as copper, and veined by shades of an iron grey. They are hard, when burnt exhale a sulphureous smell, and lose both their splendor and consistence, assuming a red colour. Native green martial vitriol is met with in many parts; in the *Hraunthal*, in the western quarter, it is found in a small rivulet, very pure and transparent. Part of the precipices and cliffs on the sea shore, at a short distance from the parish of Hellnum, consist of a singular kind of rock unknown in any other country. It is of a reddish colour, breaks like metal, and its grain is formed of vitreous particles, or lamina; some of these are as thin as paper, are two or three lines long, and as many broad, not diaphanous, but as glossy and as smooth as glass; these rocks appear to owe their existence to volcanoes. In the neighbourhood, as well as at the foot of the mountain of *Fagreskoð*, in the district of Biorneberg, and near Myvatn, in the north, among earthy scorice, a salt is gathered, called by the inhabitants saltpetre: it is white and mealy, of a bitter, disagreeable taste, and may be deemed a neutral salt, perhaps natural

sal ammoniac, since, when dissolved in spring water, it suffers no change by the addition of oil of tartar, or of syrup of violets, and remains unconsumed when thrown on the fire with nitre. In the southern part, a substance much resembling, and thence called Icelandic agate, of a black, as well as of a white colour, is found in the island of *Vestmaney*, in the hollow cavities of lava; and in every part, rocks are found of various composition, the effect of volcanoes, such as native glass, scorïæ, pumice-stone stalactites, and sand-stone. Sulphur, vitriol, and alum are met with near the Geysers. Salt in abundance has occasionally been thrown up by Mount Heckla; and several of the hot springs yield water, which by hot or cold process, give abundance of this mineral. Quartz crystals, sometimes found in light, spongy, burnt out pumice-stone; red, and green Jasper, smooth when broken; black trapp; hæmatites; zeolites of different descriptions, one resembling a cornelian, are frequently met with among the different matter vomited from the volcanoes. Rock crystal is found in the western quarter, in a mountain called Kluckour, the lumps of which are mostly laid in small pointed pyramids, on a bed, or pedestal of crystal of spath; they are from a quarter of an inch to two Inches long, and half an Inch in thickness, so hard as to cut glass, and thence are called Iceland diamonds. Petrifications are very numerous, and fossils of various kinds, among which a fossil wood, called *suturbrand*, is frequently found. This drops asunder when produced to air, but keeps well in water, and never rots; it gives a bright, though weak flame, great heat, and yields a sourish, yet not unpleasant

smell ; takes a fine polish, and is frequently turned into cups, plates, &c.

Next to fishing, the principal support of the Icelanders is derived from breeding of cattle.

Their beeves are of moderate size, very fat, and make good meat: they are chiefly without horns. In many parts they are kept all the year in the home grounds ; but, as in Norway, in others, they are driven to satern, or places in the mountains, during the summer, till the hay harvest is over, with a herdsman to attend them, and two women to milk them, and make butter and cheese ; in other parts, again, they are suffered to roam at will in the mountains, and are driven home in autumn.

The breeding of sheep, as they can readily find subsistence for themselves, is much attended to in Iceland ; many peasants possessing three or four hundred ; and before the epidemy which reigned from 1740 to 1750, it was not unusual to see flocks of a thousand, or twelve hundred belonging to one individual.

The sheep of Iceland have straight ears, standing upright, a small tail, and oftentimes four or five horns : in some places, they are kept in stables during the winter, but generally they are left to seek food for themselves in the fields.

Of goats, the comparative number on the island is small, either owing to its barrenness of wood, the dislike to them on the part of the inhabitants, from their injuring the growing trees, or the nature of the climate, which possibly may not agree with them.

The trade of Iceland is at present far from considerable, it was in earlier times of greater magnitude. Until 1408, the Norwegians were

almost the only nation which sailed to Iceland, and bought all the fish which the Icelanders did not consume, or export, in their own vessels. To these the English succeeded, who retained this trade until the Reformation, when it fell into the hands of the Hanse-town merchants; Hamburgh, in particular, reaping great profit by it. But Christian IV. who improved the whole Danish trade, was not inattentive to that of Iceland. He prohibited all intercourse with the island on the part of the Hanse Towns, in the year 1602, and limited the privilege of trading hither to Copenhagen, Malmoe, and some other towns, then subject to Denmark.

In 1620, the Iceland Company was established, but in 1632 was suppressed, in consequence of the inhabitants in 1627, having suffered materially from the depredations of pirates, against whom, and all invasion, by their charter, the Company was bound to protect the country.

The trade was afterwards disposed of to the highest bidder every six years; however, since 1734, it has been in possession of a trading company, which pays for its charter 6000 dollars per annum.

The unfair dealing of the Company has much encouraged smuggling on the part of the different nations which fish in those seas, the inhabitants getting supplied from these vessels with the various articles they require at half the price they are accustomed to pay the Company, and disposing of their eyder-down, their fish, and dried meat, for more than double what they are allowed by the Danes. Until lately, a considerable contraband traffic in tea, tobacco, and spirits, was carried on with the North of Scotland, but the vigilance of the

revenue officers, as much as the discredit in which even this description of fraud is generally held by the Scotch, has much contributed to lessen this smuggling trade,

The Company, which sends hither annually from 15 to 20 ships, imports corn, spirits, some little wine, and various articles of necessity and luxury; and exports, besides fish, which is the staple article, dried and hung mutton and beef, eyder down, and falcons.

At Hraundels retter, a fair is held once a year, whither those resort who live in the interior of the country, and exchange butter, cloth, and sheep, for fish, blubber, and other articles from the coast. At Reikavik, there is a woollen manufactory, in which about a score of workmen are employed; and more manufactures, if encouragement were held out, might readily be established.

Notwithstanding the insular and disjunct state of this country, learning flourished in it at an early period, schools having been founded here upon the introduction of Christianity, in the year 1000, and the education of youth having been diligently attended to. From this period up to the middle of the 14th century, Iceland produced a number of men of genius, whose names are famous in the annals of literature; but, in the 14th century, the ignorance which enveloped Europe extended to this country: history drooped her head, the lyre of Apollo was mute, and every other science was abandoned: the schools began to decay, many were unattended, and it was looked upon as uncommon for any one to understand Latin.

The Reformation here, as in most places, proved

the resurrection of knowledge. In 1552, Christian III. ordered the construction of two school-houses, one near each of the cathedrals, which still continue, the one for thirty-four, the other for twenty-four scholars; great pains are taken to appoint men of abilities, as teachers, to these schools, and young men are so well instructed at them, that few of the clergy study any where else. Besides these two superior schools, each parish has one or more, for the instruction of the poor in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and many of the children of those in easy circumstances travel for study to Copenhagen.

The advantage of the establishment of these schools is shewn in the improved state of learning throughout the whole country; for not only are those, in superior stations of life, in Iceland, well informed, the common people, almost all of whom can read and write, are, generally speaking, far better taught here than in most countries.

The remains of antiquity in this country are not of a description worthy of mention; nor is there any longer in Iceland any ancient books, or manuscripts; the great number of them which it once could boast, having been eagerly sought for by the curious of different countries. A number of them, containing their sagas or sayings, as well as their annals, and poetical effusions of their scalds, or bards, are deposited in the British Museum.

It is a truly singular circumstance in the history of European literature, that letters highly flourished in the remote republic of Iceland, from the eleventh to the fourteenth Century, and, independent of the fabulous Sagas, which might be counted by hundreds, the solid and valuable works then produced



in this Island might fill a considerable catalogue.

The Icelandic language is the most ancient and venerable of any spoken throughout Scandinavia, and, being esteemed the most pure dialect of the Gothic, has engaged the attention of many profound scholars, who have considered it as the parent of the Norwegian, the Danish, and the Swedish, and in a great degree of the English, though it would seem that this last is more connected with the Fritic, and other dialects of the north of Germany. From Iceland the Swedes, Norwegians, and Orcadians derived what intelligence they possess concerning the ancient history of each respective country. Snorro in particular being styled the Herodotus of the North; and the Landnama, or the book giving the origin of Iceland is an unique work, displaying the names and property of all the original settlers, and the circumstances attending the distribution of a barbaric colony. From Iceland too, we derived the Edda, and our knowledge of the ancient Gothic mythology, which has more than any other Code of Polytheism, a claim to our particular attention; with it is connected a considerable portion of our own annals, and the manners, customs, poetry, and laws, not only of this Island, but of nearly the whole of Europe, have in a great degree derived their form and colour from this wild and singular system of fabling. Chivalry, gallantry, and romantic fiction are more peculiarly the children of the north, and many of the impressive superstitions which delight imagination in the tales of the Trouvieurs, and in the works of our elder bards, and still linger in the popular, may be traced to the pages of the Edda!

Previous to the mythology invented by Odin, and established in Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, the Scandinavians believed in the first place that matter did not exist from eternity, but required a cause for its production; this primal cause they deemed a perfect Being: the Creator of all things. The Eternal, the living and awful being, the searcher into concealed things, the being that never changeth; who possesseth infinite power, boundless knowledge, and incorruptible justice. To exhibit this stupendous being under any corporeal form, to confine him within a temple built, with human hands, they deemed a profanation. It was in the centre only of some venerable wood or consecrated forest, where an awful stillness as at midnight reigned, that they presented with profound respect and salutary fear, the offspring of the heart, simplicity and truth.

A work of such singularity as the Edda, written in such a place as Iceland, and at a time when the grossest ignorance eclipsed the minds of Europeans, will we trust apologize for the introduction of some observations thereon by an eminent literary character, from which it appears that, according to the Edda "In the beginning there was neither sea, nor shore, nor refreshing breezes; there was neither earth below, nor heaven above to be distinguished: the whole was only one vast abyss, without herb and without seed: the sun had then no palace; the stars knew not their dwelling places, the moon was ignorant of her power. It was then that the first Almighty cause, operating on the chaotic mass, and separating the element of Fire, formed in the south, a world glowing and luminous. To inhabit this immense region of primal heat and light, called

Muspelshiem, and out of which the sun was afterwards taken, he created spirits, or genii of fire, over whom presided Surtur, the demon, or black prince of that element. In the other extremity of the universe, the north, arose, by the same creative fiat, realms of everlasting frost, mountains of eternal ice, whose appellation was Nifheim, and in whose dark and dreary caverns were lodged tremendous giants, named giants of the frost: then in the vast and temperate space between these two extremes, the worlds of ice and fire, he called into existence terrestrial matter, but as yet loose and uncircumscribed by figure. At this period, according to the Edda, the Omnipotent ceased to act upon matter by his direct agency, having created inferior divinities, to whom he allotted the arrangement of the terrestrial particles, the structure of the lower heavens, and the formation of man: these divinities were Odin and his offspring, who infixed the earth, circumfused the air, and, seizing upon the fires of Muspelshiem, formed the sun, they then erected for themselves in the higher regions of the atmosphere, a glorious mansion under the title of Asgard, or the court of the gods. Having thus prepared the earth, and constructed an abode in the heavens worthy of their own dignity, they proceeded to create the human species, calling the man Aske, and the woman Emla, these were liable, by their original constitution, to mortality; but the valiant, and the valiant alone, were admitted, after death, into Valhalla the palace of Odin, where they enjoyed peculiar happiness for a series of years, whilst the cowardly and those who died of lingering disease, were plunged into Nifheim, the northern hell, the seat of darkness

and desolation. This state of things, however, namely, the duration of the earth, the existence of the gods, and their places of future bliss and punishment, Valhalla and Niflheim, was ordained but for a season; after a long revolution of time, the spirits of fire, who, along with the giants, had always been at enmity with the gods, rush forth, headed by Surtur, followed by Lok, the evil principle of the Scandinavians, and, accompanied by the most horrid monsters, they consume, with devouring flames, the earth, the sun and stars, destroy the gods in battle, and perish themselves in the general conflagration. On this great event, the first Almighty being, again appears, restores the conflicting elements to order, calls into being fresh agents, and a new earth, infinitely more perfect than the preceding, springs into light and beauty: here, for the good and virtuous is prepared a seat of ineffable and eternal happiness, called Gimble, or the palace of gold, and in the utter extremity of the universe, remote from light and life, rises the mansion of everlasting misery, the receptacle of the wicked, named Nastrond, whose walls are composed of the carcasses of serpents, and through whose gates pours poison in a thousand torrents."

The Edda is singular in attributing destruction to the subordinate deities, while it preserves distinct and free from all the mutations incident to matter, the first Almighty essence, the cause of causes. Numerous were the gods of the Scandinavians, but Odin, as the chief divinity, was worshiped as the god of war, and, in the great temple at Upsal he was represented holding a sword in his hand. The Edda describes him as a terrible and severe god: the father

of slaughter. The active and roaring deity. He who giveth victory and reviveth courage in the conflict. In Asgard Odin had several palaces. In Gladheim, or the mansion of Joy, a large and magnificent hall, he administered justice, sitting on an elevated seat, surrounded by the twelve gods. Justice was also administered by him and his brother deities, under a large ash tree, named Hydrasil. This enormous tree, whose branches reach to the highest heaven, and cover the whole earth, has three roots, which diverge to an infinite distance from each other : under the first root, which is in heaven, flows the hallowed stream of time past, with whose sacred waters three virgins perpetually sprinkle the tree, and support the beauty of its foliage ; their abode is for ever under the ash, and they dispense the date and destinies of man. Under the second root, which extends to the land of the giants, is placed the spring of Mimer, the fountain of Wisdom, and the divine liquor of Odin ; and beneath the third root, which covers Niflheim, or hell, and is the food of the monstrous serpent Nidhoger, flows the fountain Vergeln, the source of the infernal rivers. On this tree sits an eagle, whose piercing eye discovers all things, whilst a squirrel is incessantly occupied in running along the branches, and conveying news from every part of the world.

In Valhalla, Odin received the souls of those who died contending on the field of battle, and every warrior, previous to the engagement, took a vow to send him the spirits of the slain, for whom, when dying sword in hand, the gates of Valhalla were ever open. To this deity prayers were offered for success in conflict ; and such was his enthusiasm for martial

deeds, that he was supposed often personally, mounted on his black horse, which had eight feet, to mingle in the contest, to excite the ardour of the hero, to strike those destined to perish, and to speed the parting spirits to the halls of heaven.

Preposterously absurd as the theology of the Scandinavians may appear to minds educated under the influence of Christianity, and enlightened by the beneficial doctrines deducible from divine revelation, it is infinitely more rational than the gloomy tenets insidiously propagated at the present day by "baptized infidels," impiously ascribing the phænomena of nature to the eternal energies of matter, and to a nonentity, CHANCE, what nothing short of infinite Wisdom could devise, and omnific power effect—the creation of the Universe!

The Danish language, perhaps from the little commerce which the Icelanders have had with any nation, has suffered less alteration among them than with any of the rest of the subjects of the Danish monarchy.

The Icelanders, it is worthy of remark, are the only people in Europe who, with ourselves, have preserved the sound with the character of the Gothic th, for although the sound exists among the Spaniards, it is given to the final d and z.

Iceland is thinly inhabited, not affording one person to each square mile; its contents in square miles being 67,500, with a population amounting to no more than 60,000, over which are placed two Bishops.

The capital of Iceland is Skalholt.

We shall conclude our description of this remarkable island by observing, in the poetic language of

De Reyrae, that HERE "all the imprisoned and jarring elements, growl furiously, and in their endless combats, strive to overturn the ancient foundations of the world."

## DENMARK.

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The name of Denmark, implying the marshes, boundaries, or territories of the Danes, is derived from the inhabitants, who are first mentioned by this name in the sixth century, when we begin to acquire a faint idea of Scandinavia from the history of Jornaudes. Norway, anciently Norrick, or the northern kingdom, affords an easy and precise derivation. These kingdoms, which in former times have, by repeated emigrations, changed the destinies of a great part of Europe, and continue deeply to interest the student of history, constitute a singular expansion of territory, for, from the river Elbe, in the south, to the northern extremity of Danish Lapland, and the wild environs of the river Tana, may be computed, after excluding the entrance of the Baltic, an extent of not less than 1400 British miles in length, by a medial breadth of only 150, of this great length, Denmark occupies about 260 miles, while the remainder belongs to Norway : this extent of coast might be supposed to constitute a formidable naval power, but the havens are neither important nor numerous, and are better adapted to the fleets of small vessels which formerly struck Europe with dismay, than to the pomp and magnitude of modern navigation. To the south, the Danish province of Holstein borders on the wide



territories of Germany; on the east, west and north, Denmark is surrounded by the sea. The territories subject to the crown of Denmark are divided into the following provinces, viz.

- |                      |                      |                   |
|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Jutland.          | 2. Isle of Funen.    | } Denmark proper. |
| 3. Isle of Zeeland.  |                      |                   |
| 4. Sleswick.         | 5. Holstein.         |                   |
| 6. Christiansand.    | 7. Aggerhuus.        | } Norway.         |
| 8. Bergen.           | 9. Drontheim.        |                   |
| 10. Norland.         | 11. Finmark.         |                   |
| 12. Isle of Iceland. | 13. Isles of Ferrse. |                   |

The original population of Denmark appears to have consisted of Cimbri, or northern celts, the ancestors of our Welch, and who in particular held the Cimbric Chersonese, or modern Jutland, and Sleswick. On the progress of the Goths from the N. and E. the Cimbri were expelled, yet the Chersonese retained their name, while possessed by seven Gothic tribes, among which were the Angli, who afterwards gave appellation to England, and who appear to have resided in the eastern part of Sleswick, where there is still the province of Anglen.

The progressive geography of Denmark may be traced with some precision from the first mention of the Cimbric Chersonese by astonished Rome. Tacitus describes the Suiones ancestors of the Danes, as constituting states situated in the sea, that is in the Island of Zeeland, and others which still form the seat of Danish power. He adds, that they had fleets, their ships being of a singular form, capable of presenting either end as a prow: that they had acquired wealth, and were ruled by a

monarch. The kingdom of Denmark proper, consisting of those ancient seats of the Danish monarchy the Isles of Zeeland, Funen, Laland, and Falster, with others of inferior size; and the extensive Chersonese or peninsula which contains Jutland, Sleswick, and Holstein, may be considered as possessing a humid and rather a temperate climate, yet the winter is occasionally of extreme severity, and the sea is impeded with ice. The aspect of such wide and detached regions may be conceived to be greatly diversified. The isle of Zeeland which is about 200 G. miles in circumference, exclusive of the windings and indentures of the coast, is a fertile and pleasant country, with fields separated by mud walls, cottages either of brick, or white washed, woods of beech and oak; vales and gentle hills: the same description is applicable to Funen, which is about 140 G. miles in circumference, and which is represented to be as well cultivated as most of the counties in England. Holstein and Sleswick are also level countries, and though Jutland presents many upland moors, and forests of great extent, especially towards Aalborg, or in the centre of the northern part, yet there are fertile pastures: and the country, being marshy and not mountainous, might be greatly improved, particularly if the peasantry breathed the air of freedom, but they are in a state of vassalage, except those of the crown, and a few other instances; from amongst which favoured few, is selected our Costume of a Danish Peasant, whose placid countenance, bespeaks a contented mind, as home he trudges laden with roots and grain, provisions for another day.

In Holstein and the south of Jutland, the



*A Danish Peasant.*



agriculture may be compared with that of England, the fields are divided by hedges and ditches, in excellent order, and principally sown with corn and turnips.

In Denmark proper, there are no heights which can aspire to the name of mountains. The botany of this kingdom does not materially differ from that of the other northern provinces of the German empire. The horses of Holstein are remarkable for size, are an excellent breed both for the carriage and saddle, and, together with horned cattle, are sold annually in great numbers. The rivulets here are numerous, but scarcely a river of any note except the Eyder, the ancient boundary between Denmark and Germany. Towards the north of Jutland an extensive creek of the sea, called Lymsiord, penetrates from the Cattegat to within two or three miles of the German sea, navigable, full of fish and containing many islands, there are several other creeks which are by the Danes styled fiords, or friths, but scarcely another river worth mentioning. The lakes however are numerous in the Danish dominions.

The vapours from the surrounding sea, render the climate of Denmark more temperate than many more southerly parts of Europe. Spring and Autumn, so pleasant in England, are seasons scarcely known here, by reason of the sudden transitions from heat to cold; and as the country is in general flat, abounding in bogs and morasses, it is extremely subject to fogs and foul air, with all their unwholesome and unpleasant concomitants, nor is the soil, upon the whole, very productive.

The population of the whole of the Danish domi-

nions, including the isles, Jutland, Norway, &c. do not amount to three millions, indeed they are computed at only two millions and a half; therefore if we suppose the square contents to be about 180,000 miles, there will only be 12 inhabitants to the square mile. Denmark proper, supplies about 40,000 troops: formerly they possessed a degree of courage approaching even to ferocity, but by a continual series of tyranny and oppression, they are changed: they are become timid and mean spirited: like other northern nations they are much addicted to intemperance. Their navy, prior to the late engagement with the English off Copenhagen, consisted of 33 ships of the line, manned by about 11,000 seamen, and 5,000 marines. Since which, England, to prevent them being used against her by France, determined on the bold measure of piloting them into British ports.

Denmark is extremely well situated, and her harbours calculated for commerce; her mariners are expert. Her annual revenue is computed at about one million and a half sterling, being superior to that of Sweden. The expences of the State amount annually to about £1,050,000, and is burthened with a debt of about £2,600,000.

Denmark's chief commerce consists in fir and timber for ship-builders, tallow, hides, train oil, tar, and iron, also black cattle and horses, the natural products of this country. In mineral waters the Danish dominions are very deficient, and those discovered in 1768 at Oersten in the Sondmoer, appear to be little frequented.

The chief public edifices are in the cities. The castle and palace of Cronberg, and the two other

royal villas in Zealand, do not merit particular description.

Copenhagen, the capital of the Danish monarchy, is one of the most beautiful cities in Europe; it is divided into three parts, and contains many noble edifices. The Exchange is 400 feet in front, and covered with lead. The Citadel is small, it has five bastions. The Playhouse is in the market square, is of irregular architecture, interior pretty, and handsomely decorated. The arsenal is in excellent order. The castle at Rosenburg, a Gothic edifice, contains the crown jewellery, and other curiosities. The botanic garden has a number of rare plants, and is kept in great order. The observatory contains very excellent instruments. The library of the University contains many scarce and valuable first editions, an abundance of Runic and Icelandic manuscripts, and many very rare works. The streets of this city are in many instances narrow, the middle is frequently occupied by canals. Its present population is about 90,000 souls.

Elsinoer, six Danish miles from Copenhagen, is the most considerable, though not the largest town in the Islands of Denmark. It is well built, and contains about 5,000 inhabitants, who maintain themselves by a bustling commerce and fishing. This is the residence of the consuls of all the commercial nations. Here a toll is gathered from all ships trading with the Baltic. The number of ships which annually passed the Sound between 1786 and 1797, was on an average 10,000, and the toll collected has in some years amounted to even 700,000 rix-dollars.

The natives of Denmark are generally fair complexioned, rather above the middle stature, and in common with the other descendants of the Cimbrians and Goths, have light hair, and blue eyes ; they are in general dirty in their houses, are rather of a phlegmatic than a lively disposition, and very partial to good eating, indeed, their chief pleasures centre in the pipe and glass, smoking and drinking to excess. Persons of rank differ very little in their manners from those of similar conditions in the other countries of Europe. The number of nobility that have privileged fiefs in the kingdom is very small, and the ranks are only those of Count and Baron.

We have given the Costume of a Danish Nobleman, which appears well adapted to resist the rigour of a northern climate. In fur-lined boots the Nobleman surveys his estate, and when he goes abroad, or pays a visit, is seldom seen without his cane, cocked hat, and coat en militaire, the cuffs and collar of which are generally surmounted with rich fur, whilst the prevailing colour of the breeches is a pale blue, contrasting well with the other part of his Costume.

The literature of Denmark cannot aspire to much antiquity, having followed the introduction of Christianity, which was not established till the eleventh century.

Since the revolution of 1660, the government has been an absolute monarchy, but which has, however, been generally conducted with mildness and moderation, and their royal acts pass through many councils, who carefully observe the legal forms. Except the Laponic, the language spoken in the





*A Danish Nobleman.*



Danish dominions are all sister dialects of the Gothic, though high Dutch and French are spoken at court, and English is taught as a necessary part of a superior education. The religion of Denmark is Lutheran; there are no Archbishops, but six Bishopricks, the chief See of which is that of Zealand. The ancient monuments of Denmark are chiefly what are called Runic: circles of upright stones prevail throughout the Danish dominions.

## PRUSSIA.

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**T**HIS kingdom, which only commenced with the eighteenth century, has by gradual accessions become so extensive, as deservedly to rank among the first powers of Europe. Its dominions were small and scattered, till the acquisition of Silesia, and afterwards a third part of Poland gave a wide and stable basis to the new monarchy. Exclusive of small detached territories, the kingdom of Prussia extends from Hornburg to the river Memel, about 600 miles, and in breadth, from the southern limit of Silesia to Dantzic, exceeds 300 miles.

On the East and South, Prussia now borders on the dominions of Russia and Austria, and the western limits adjoin the bishoprick of Hildesheim. Before the acquisitions in Poland the number of Prussian subjects was only estimated at 5,621,500 in a total extent of 56,414 square miles; at present they amount to about 8,000,000.

The original population of Prussia appears to have been Gothic tribes, bordering on the Venedi, who were Slavons.

This kingdom may be regarded as consisting of four great divisions, namely, the Electorate of Brandenburg; the Kingdom of Prussia proper; the large Province of Silesia; and a third part of the ancient





*A Polish Gentleman.*

Kingdom of Poland. The natives of which latter kingdom seem a lively people, and use much action in their ordinary conversation. We have given the Costume of a Polish Gentleman, who, with the men of all ranks, generally wear whiskers, and shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown. The dress of the higher ranks of Poles, both men and women, is uncommonly elegant; that of the gentleman is a waistcoat with sleeves, over which they wear an upper robe of a different colour, which reaches down below the knee, and is fastened round the waist with a sash or girdle; the sleeves of this upper garment are in warm weather tied behind the shoulders, and is of silk, but in winter, of cloth, velvet, or stuff, edged with fur. They wear caps or bonnets, and buskins of yellow leather, the heels of which are plated with iron or steel, and a sabre is a necessary part of their dress as a mark of Nobility. The Polish peasants in summer wear nothing but a shirt and drawers of coarse linen, and round caps or hats. The Poles, in their features, look, customs, dress, and general appearance, resemble Asiatics rather than Europeans, and are unquestionably descended from Tartar ancestors.

The climate of the Prussian dominions is, upon the whole, cold and moist. Brandenburg and Pomerania is more free from humidity than Prussia proper, which has about eight months of winter. The northern part of Poland which has fallen under the Prussian sceptre abounds with forests and marshes.

The lower parts of Silesia are the most healthy and fertile provinces of the monarchy. Brandenburg is a sandy and barren country; Prussia proper, as also Prussian Poland, displays superior fertility,

while Silesia presents a pleasing diversity, being level and open towards Poland, but separated from Hungary on the South by the Carpathian mountains. It is every where watered by the Oder, and its tributary streams; nor is there any deficiency of rivers in the other parts of the Prussian sovereignty.

Few parts of Prussia are destitute of woods and forests, which are plentifully stocked with wild fowl, and venison; but this kingdom, generally speaking, is a level country, the only mountains are those of Silesia; those in the South and West of this province are a northern branch of the Carpathian mountains, which form the most southern boundary.

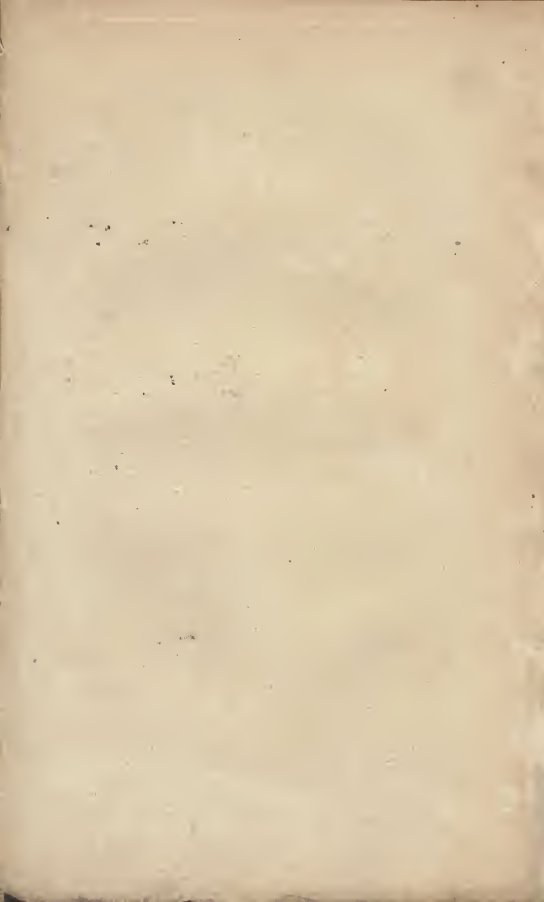
Among the chief rivers of Prussia ranks the Elbe, which rises in the South of Bohemia, and pervades the Duchy of Magdeburg. The Spree, which passes by Berlin, and falls into the Havel. The Oder, which rises in the mountains of Moravia, waters Silesia, Brandenburg and Pomerania, and joins the Baltic.

The Vistula is a noble stream. The Memel is a superior river; and the gulf of Dantzic lies on the southern shores of the Baltic.

Numerous are the lakes in the eastern part of the Prussian dominions.

The mineralogy of Prussia will not afford an extensive theme; formerly there were mines of gold and silver; copper and lead mines still exist, and there are considerable foundries of iron. Coal is found in various parts of Silesia, but the most peculiar mineral production is amber. The prevailing vegetables of Prussia are such as inhabit level and sandy districts. Agricultural improvements are little known, still Prussia proper and the Polish provinces,







*A Peasant of Silesian Prussia.*

display every kind of grain and esculent plant that can flourish under such a latitude, while Silesia produces maize and even vines.

Prussia is no way remarkable for its breed of horses or neat cattle,\* and few parts are calculated for an excellent breed of sheep. The rivers and lakes are well stored with fish, and at Pillau there is a large sturgeon fishery. Inland navigation is little known, or cultivated here.

The early inhabitants, a brave and warlike people, descended from the Sclavonians, were pagans, and nearly extirpated by the German Knights of the Teutonic Order, after which, the country was re-peopled by Germans. The manners and customs of a country composed of such various inhabitants, recently united under one sovereign, must be discordant. Opposed to the Saxons, who are a lively and contented people, are the Prussians, who appear dull and gloomy. The peasants, though oppressed by heavy taxation, being free from the wanton extortions, and capricious personal services, exacted by the Polish aristocracy, manifest signs of comparative ease and prosperity.

In different parts of Silesia, as in England, the land is let in farms, and the peasants hired as day labourers, from which employment, laden with fuel, is seen the Silesian peasant, in our plate of Costume for the country under consideration, who, like the industrious ant, provides for a long and dreary winter.

Among the chief cities of Prussia must first be mentioned Berlin, situated on the banks of the river Spree; it is regularly fortified, and vies with most cities in Europe. It was founded in the twelfth

century, by a colony from the Netherlands, and contains 142,000 inhabitants, being about four miles and a half long, and three wide. The architecture, the distribution of the buildings, the appearance of the squares, the plantations of trees both in them and in the streets; in short, every thing bespeaks taste and variety. It is more remarkable for the elegance of the buildings than for its wealth or industry; but when the stranger takes a nearer view, and stands gazing at the beauty of a building in the Ionic order, he is suddenly surprised to see a window opened, and a cobbler hanging out a pair of boots to dry, and before his first surprise is over, a breeches-maker treats him with a pair of straddling breeches from another story of the next building. A few paces farther produces a palace of the Corinthian order; but before your eyes have reached the attic story, a Jew looks out at a first-floor window, salutes you, and asks whether you have any thing to swop? This principally arises from the great number of beautiful houses that are let off in separate stories to mechanics. There is no town in Europe, except Constantinople, where so numerous a garrison is seen, it consists of twenty-six thousand men, and for a little money a man may have every thing done for him by a soldier. It has numerous manufactories of cloth, metals, and glass, and has a communication by water both with the Baltic sea and the German ocean. Some of the most splendid edifices of the country adorn this city, particularly the palace and the theatre. But the other grand buildings seem not to have impressed travellers with veneration, being barracks for soldiers and the like. The city itself is almost entirely built with bricks, though the fronts

of the houses are disguised with stucco. The Linden walk deserves particular attention, and never fails to obtain it from strangers; it is very broad, formed of triple rows of the graceful tree, from which it takes its name, and is situated in the centre of the street, having carriage roads on each side, from which it is protected by a handsome line of granite posts, connected by bars of iron, and illuminated at night by large reflecting lamps, suspended over the centre by cords, stretched from corresponding supporters of wrought iron: its length is about an English mile, and presents at one end the rich portico of the marble opera house, and the palace, and at the other the celebrated Brandenburg gate, which is a superb monument of tasteful architecture, forming a colonade of stone, of a light reddish yellow colour, composed of twelve grand fluted corinthian columns, forty four feet high, and five feet seven inches in diameter, six on each side, leaving a space for the gates to fold between, presenting five colossal portals, through which the park is seen in fine perspective. The wings composing the custom and guard houses are adorned with eighteen smaller columns, twenty nine feet high, and three feet in diameter; the whole is crowned by stupendous figures of the angel of peace driving four horses abreast in a triumphal car, below which are rich basso relievos. The river Spree runs through Berlin, and is adorned by some handsome stone bridges. Although nature has refused to furnish the country with a single stone, yet the streets in the city are well paved, the policy of Frederick the great having wisely made provision for such an accommodation, by enacting

that all vessels that came up the Elbe, the Havel, or the Spree, should take on board at Magdeburg a certain quantity of free stone, and disembark them at Berlin, gratis. The rotunda, or catholic church, is a noble edifice, the grand altar of which was made at Rome, and is celebrated for its beauty. Berlin is justly praised for the excellence of its hotels, and living is very moderate. In the audience room of the great palace is a chandelier of chrystal, which cost 4,200*l*. A portrait of the Duke of Ferrara, painted by Correggio, for which 10,000 ducats were given, and a beautiful statue of Marcus Aurelius, drawn up from the Tiber.

Potsdam is situated on the river Havel, and is formed into an Isle by the adjoining lakes and canals; its distance from Berlin is about sixteen English miles. The great palace here, in which the royal family principally reside, has a few elegant state rooms: in one of which the Queen has decorated one of her little cabinets with engravings from some of the exquisite productions of Westall. This city is said by some travellers who have seen both, to equal Berlin in size and in buildings, and to be equally gloomy. Here is a fine picture gallery, two hundred and fifty-eight feet long; thirty-six broad, and fifteen high, which is supported by carrara pillars, and is superbly gilded and ornamented: the collection is very select and precious. From this gallery, a stair-case leads to a terrace, from whence a beautiful view of the river, and the surrounding country is obtained. The gardens of Sans Souci, in the neighbourhood of Potsdam, are elegantly arranged, the facade, towards the plain, is very beautiful, toward the terrace, very heavy,

where it resembles more a great tasteless greenhouse than a royal residence. The new palace, distant from Sans Souci about an English mile and a half, is gained after passing two grand lodges and out offices, connected by an elegant semicircular colonnade of eighty-eight columns. The front of the palace is adorned with corinthian pilasters, and the body built with the rich red Dutch brick, the hall is a superb vaulted grotto, formed of chrystals, branches of coral, and shells, and fountains, arranged with equal elegance and novelty.

If we except the linens of Silesia, the manufactures of Prussia are of little importance, yet they afford for home consumption, glass, iron, brass, paper and woollen cloth, and Frederick II introduced a small manufactory of silk; even the exports of Dantzick consist almost entirely of timber, corn, tallow, and articles of a similar nature. If we except the ancient staple of grain, so very abundant in the level plains of Poland, the commerce of Prussia is comparatively of but little consequence. Amber is by nature constituted a monopoly of the kingdom, but fashion has rendered this branch of commerce insignificant. In exchange for her linens, timber, corn, &c. Prussia receives wines, and other products of more southern, and more favoured countries.

No foreign colonies have emigrated from Prussia, indeed it has been a chief object with the different monarchs to colonize the country itself, in which their endeavours have been crowned with ample success.

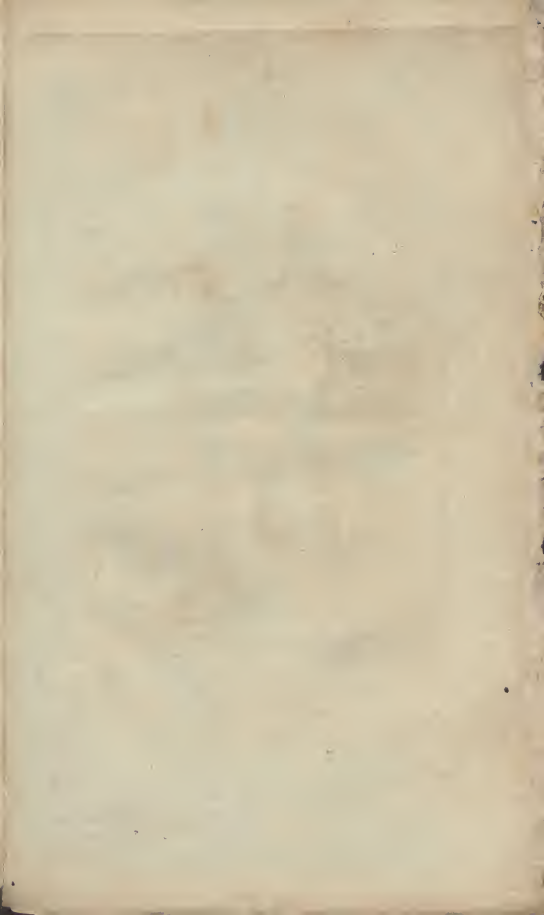
In the year 1373, the Emperor Charles IV assigned Brandenburg to his second son Sigismund

who, in 1415, being then Emperor of Germany, sold his Margravate and Electorate to Frederick, Burgrave of Nuremburg, for 400,000 ducats; this prince was the ancestor of the present reigning family.

In the year 1539, Joachim second elector of Brandenburg, embraced the Lutheran religion, which has to the present day remained the ruling system of the state. In 1640, Frederick William, surnamed the great Elector, succeeded his father, and in 1656, compelled the King of Poland to declare Prussia an independent state, it having formerly been held of the polish sovereigns. In 1657, he obtained a confirmation of Ducal Prussia to him and his heirs, freed from Vassalage. He was succeeded by his son in the year 1688.

With these titles they continued till the year 1701, when Frederick, son of Frederick William the great, raised the duchy of Prussia to a Kingdom, placing the crown on his own head; he was proclaimed at Konisberg, on the 18th day of January. In 1713 Frederick William II ascended the throne, and in 1721, founded the city of Potsdam. He was the father of that great prince Frederick II, who ascended the throne in 1740, and died in 1786, after a long and glorious reign; the most memorable and lasting event of which was the acquisition of Silesia, from the house of Austria, in 1742. The reign of his nephew was very short, and the prince who now fills the throne is Frederick William III, son to the late king; at present an active ally of Great Britain, at the head of a numerous body of his brave subjects, constantly in the field of battle, encouraging them to deeds of fame by personal







*A Grenadier of the Prussian Army.*

example, and was one of the three crowned heads, who, triumphantly entered the great square at Leipsic in 1813, to the satisfaction of thousands of spectators, who, hailed with enthusiastic raptures, their deliverers, from the intolerable yoke of Gallic oppression.

Subsequent events have arisen, which has enabled the Prussian soldiery to deck their brows with fresh laurels, particularly the ever memorable battle of Waterloo, in which under Prince Blucher, with the aid of British valour, they triumphed over the veteran heroes of France, gaining as decisive a victory as ever the pen of the historian recorded and we feel pleasure in closing our plates of Costumes, with that of a grenadier of the Prussian army, who is discovered enjoying a momentary respite from the toils of war, surrounded by the implements of death and carnage.

His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state: viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The states consists, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2, Of deputies from the nobility; erected a board for commerce and navigation.

As there is no vestage of a senate or of delegates from the people, who have any check on the power of the crown, the government must, as has been observed, be deemed absolute. In many respects, however, it is, and has long been, exercised with much mildness, and some of the monarchs, have

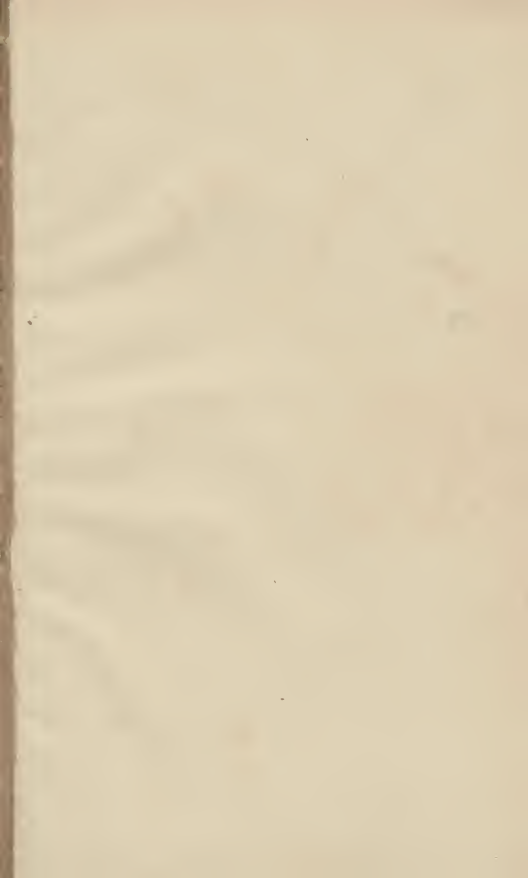
been conspicuous for a conduct which has rendered the country great and prosperous.

The principal religion of Prussia is the Protestant, as separated into the Lutheran and Calvinistic, but since the acquisitions in Poland the greater number of the inhabitants are of the Roman catholic persuasion. The sovereigns of the country have, however, discouraged persecution as well by their practise and example as by their precepts, so that all sects and parties, and all religions are tolerated in their several modes of worship, and the people, accordingly, live together in peace and harmony.

#### DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER.

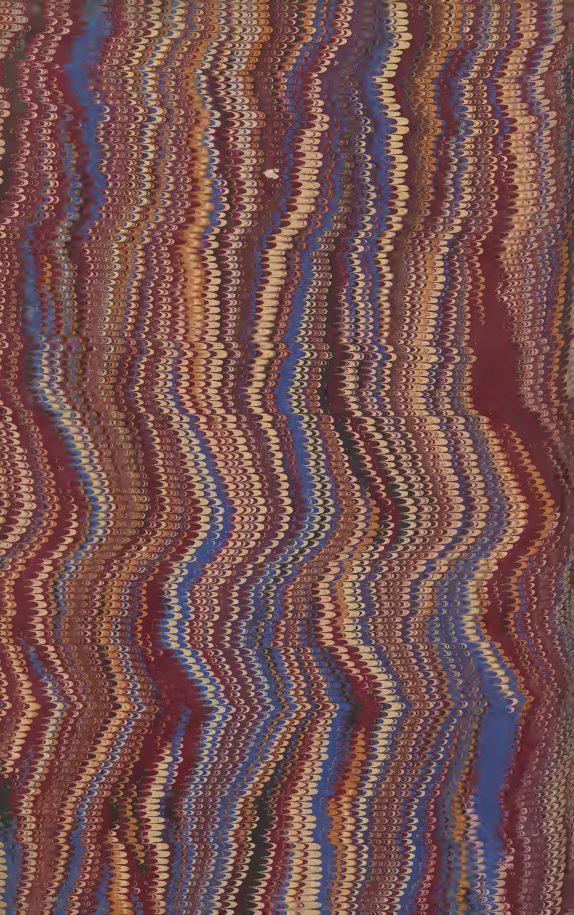


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Seðlabanki Íslands

Bókasafn



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